

A HISTORICAL REVIEW OF THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT
OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF FLORIDA:
A CASE STUDY

BY

JUDITH DIANE KECK

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Judith Diane Keck

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my confidant, Buclair Cummins, and to the memory of my mother, Claudine Hershisier Keck. The remembrance of their love, acceptance, and understanding sustained my spirit throughout my graduate studies.

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
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A HISTORICAL REVIEW OF THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT
OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF FLORIDA:
A CASE STUDY

By

Judith Diane Keck

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Chairman: Arthur J. Lewis, Professor
Major Department: Curriculum and Instruction

The purpose of this study was to examine the historical development of preservice teacher education in the State of Florida. More specifically, answers to the following questions were sought:

1. What strategies have been used in training teachers in the State of Florida?
2. What has influenced the development of certain strategies?
3. What procedures have been employed by the State of Florida to monitor the effectiveness of teacher education programs?

The research method of historiography was applied to this problem in educational history. Central to the development of this investigation was the use of the case study approach in the research of Florida teacher education.

The school law of 1869 was the foundation upon which the present school system in Florida was constructed. The law directed the state board of education to provide for the preparation of teachers. With the enactment of the uniform teacher certification law in 1893, the emphasis in teacher training shifted from teaching students how to teach to preparing them to pass the certification examinations. The graduate certification law of 1913 initiated the transition from the practice of issuing certificates based on examination results only to issuing them based on training students for the work to be performed.

The 1939 school code established the state board of education as the state agency that determined regulations for teacher education program accreditation. Beginning in 1953, teacher training program approval by the state department of education was required.

Following the statewide teachers' strike in 1968, legislative mandates regarding education and teacher education increased. Because of the Educational Accountability Act of 1971, teacher education programs placed greater emphasis on classroom management and the teaching of the basics. Precertification examinations were reinstituted in 1980; passing this competency examination, coupled with completion of a yearlong beginning teacher program, was required for full certification in Florida in 1982.

It is recommended that this study concerning the historical development of teacher education in Florida be updated every 10 to 15 years. Through the study of historical trends, educators can improve teacher education, a fundamental part of our educational system.

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

The strength of an educational system depends upon the quality of its teachers. However enlightened the aims, however up to date and generous the equipment, however efficient the administrators, the value of education to the children is determined by the teachers. There is, therefore, no more important matter than that of securing a sufficient supply of the right kind of people to the teaching profession, providing them with the best possible training, and ensuring to them a status and esteem commensurate with the importance and responsibility of their work. With the rapid expansion of schooling, both in numbers and extent of education, these problems have acquired a new importance and urgency.

The problems of teacher education are among those nagging realities which simply will not go away. How to prepare large numbers of young people to be effective teachers of our children, and then, how to keep those teachers performing at a high level are perennial challenges in education. While teacher education has its fads, frills, and trends, it is basically an unglamorous subject. It is, nevertheless, a burning presence that underlies all of the proposals to improve the schools, and, therefore, cannot be ignored.

As established by our system of government, it is a constitutional function of the state to maintain and supervise the public schools. In discharging this responsibility, each state should provide competent and

capable teachers for its public schools. The policy of the regulation of teacher training is developed through the state legislature.

The focus of this study is upon the development of teacher education in the State of Florida. To devote a study to teacher education within a state system of education reflects not only the centrality of teacher education to the entire field of education but also recognizes that much has happened in teacher education historically. An understanding of these historical developments can help to shape sound policy decisions.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to seek a general understanding of the history of the preservice preparation of teachers for the elementary and secondary schools of Florida. More specifically, answers to the following questions are sought:

1. What strategies have been used in training teachers in the State of Florida?
2. What has influenced the development of certain strategies?
3. What procedures have been employed by the State of Florida to monitor the effectiveness of teacher education programs?

Design of the Study

The research method of historiography is applied to this problem in educational history. In brief, historiography or the historical method, as delineated by historiographers, is a process of determining the

accuracy of statements made about events (Barzun & Graff, 1962; Brickman, 1982; The Social Sciences, 1954). It is obvious that a historian, that is, one who desires to write a reliable account of certain occurrences, is rarely in a position to describe direct observations of his or her own. In as much as a historian must rely upon the testimony of others, he or she must make use of techniques to verify and evaluate those statements. Accordingly, Brickman (1982) stated that the writing of history involves

1. The selection and delimitation of a research problem;
2. The accumulation, classification, and criticism of source materials;
3. The consequent determination of the facts;
4. The formulation of tentative hypotheses to explain the facts; and
5. The synthesis and presentation of the facts in a logically organized form. (p. 91)

Central to the development of this investigation is the use of the case study approach in the research of Florida teacher education. A case study is an intensive analysis of an individual, an institution, a community, any group, or, in this case, a single state that is considered as a unit of study. The case study approach emphasizes the total situation or combination of factors, the description of the process of sequence of events in which the behavior occurs, and the study and analysis of the developmental factors in relation to the environment within which these factors are found and function (Young, 1933). The intensive character of the case study approach allows for its descriptive nature to be, if accurate, always a true record of what has occurred and still is occurring.

Young (1933) referred to the case study approach as the historical-genetic method since it provides a more or less continuous picture through time of the experiences, social forces, and influences which the unit of study (teacher education in the State of Florida) has exerted or to which the unit of study has been subjected and conditioned in the activities of other environmental forces. Thus the case study method includes a picture of past situations which furnish new meanings and new responses. "This is particularly valuable in giving information to crises which are significant in the development of new attitudes, meanings, and habits" (Young, 1933, pp. 27, 28).

As to the contribution of the case study approach to history, one authority said that there is no other method which can better deal with historical data "for it alone provides the essential order and consistency in the field" (Bernard, 1934, p. 270). Thus viewed, the case study approach appears to be a legitimate type of research approach to employ in investigating teacher education as developed by the State of Florida. Not only does it seek to secure all possible data with regard to the unit (teacher education in the State of Florida) being studied, but also it derives from these data a unified, coherent concept concerning the part played by a variety of influences in determining the character and the experiences of the unit in its existence as a whole.

To shed light upon the activities of the field, Chapter 2 sets the preparation of teachers in this country in a historical perspective; it describes the major patterns of training and the institutional arrangements. From that background, Chapter 3 presents a historical

review of the organization and development of teacher education in Florida.

Sources of information employed in this investigation included histories of Florida; official records; articles; newspapers; logs, diaries, correspondence, oral history, and interviews; and economic and social indicators. Extensive use was made of the P. K. Yonge Library of Florida History (a division of the University of Florida main library) for historical documentation and of the University of Florida Law Library for legislation. Additional information was obtained from interviews with present and past leaders in teacher education in Florida.

Definition of Teacher Education

Teacher education is a preparation program designed to train people for a career in teaching. Contemporary writers (Cogan, 1975; Conant, 1963; Cremin, 1961; Masoner, 1963; Woodring, 1963) include the following specific components in a teacher education program: (a) an extensive background in general or liberal education; (b) an examination of the foundations of education; (c) an exploration in depth and breadth in the field in which the person is preparing to teach; (d) a concentration in professional studies or pedagogy; and (e) a supervised clinical practice teaching and internship.

The general education or liberal arts study is intended to supply a broad view of the areas of knowledge in the humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences. It provides for the student an understanding and

appreciation of the contributions of the fields of knowledge, selected educational experiences in them, something of the concepts and methods underlying them, and the development of both an interest and ability to continue further explorations in learning. Some of the general courses are deemed especially appropriate for an aspiring teacher.

The foundations of education study includes courses derived from the behavioral sciences and the humanities for the purpose of familiarizing aspiring educators with the function of the schools in the social order, how best to improve effectiveness of schools in that social order, and what constitutes the dynamics of student personality development and learning styles.

The subject matter training builds a knowledge base in the proposed teaching field(s) of a prospective teacher. Education in subject matter should lead to a respect for learning and to an appreciation of the role of an expert or scholar in the field.

The professional studies or pedagogy training is designed to enable the student to acquire information regarding teaching techniques, curricular designs, principles and procedures of classroom teaching and organization, and evaluation and measurement. It involves content from many disciplines, notably psychology, philosophy, and sociology.

The supervised clinical practice teaching and internship experiences are focused upon the specific behaviors or skills to be employed in teaching. Under the guidance of college supervisors and of supervising teachers, the student teacher can utilize these specific behaviors or skills and receive specific feedback on his or her use of these skills.

Delimitations

There are boundaries, exceptions, reservations, and qualifications inherent in this study. These delimitations include the following three areas:

1. The perimeters of this study are specifically established within the confines of the State of Florida. A national overview of the history of teacher education is included in the review of related literature.
2. Because the research method employed in this study is the case study approach and, as such, presents a unified, coherent picture through time of the experiences, social forces, and influences in which the education of teachers in Florida has been subjected, a type of survey review is given. The comprehensive overview presents a continuous depiction of the data but it is not an indepth inspection of it.
3. An effort has been made to find and use all of the materials available concerning teacher training in the United States and Florida from colonial time to the present. In spite of the fact that numerous primary and secondary sources were consulted, the investigation may have missed some pertinent information. Some of the

materials cited in secondary sources were not available.

4. There was no intensive criticism of the sources used so their validity may vary.

Overview of the Dissertation

The beginning of this historical study emphasizes the background and history of teacher education in the United States from colonial times to the present. The review of the literature that provides this national context is presented in Chapter 2.

From the setting provided by the background information, the study presents a historical review of the organization and development of teacher education in the State of Florida. Chapter 3 describes teacher education in Florida during a series of time periods. The time periods were selected to designate major shifts in the development of education within the State of Florida.

A summary chapter, Chapter 4, offers answers to the three questions identified in the section concerning the statement of the problem. Conclusions are presented, and recommendations for further study are proposed in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER TWO
BACKGROUND AND HISTORY OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE U.S.A.:
A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, COLONIAL TIMES - 1984

The Seventy-First Congress authorized a survey of the education of teachers on a nationwide scope from 1933-1935. Benjamin W. Frazier, senior specialist in teacher training in the U.S. Office of Education during those years, headed a team who prepared the historical background for the survey. In that treatment of the history of teacher education in the United States (Frazier, 1935), the team identified certain trends or tendencies which have affected the teacher education policies within this country. They organized the history of teacher education into a series of time frames which emphasized significant shifts in teacher education. This history of teacher education in the United States follows these divisions of time.

Early Background: Beginnings of Teacher Preparation,
Colonial Times - 1839

The oldest form of teacher education is the observation and emulation of a master. Plato learned to teach by sitting at the feet of Socrates. Aristotle learned from Plato. Throughout the course of history, others have learned how and what to teach from their own teachers.

Advice to teachers and instruction in methods were available in written form long before there were special schools for teacher

training. Roman teachers could read Quintilian's advice on teaching; sixteenth-century teachers could read the Didactica Magna which emphasized that teachers should teach less and learners should learn more (Woodring, 1975) .

A form of teacher education was provided by medieval universities where the master's degree was a certificate of admission to the guild of professional teachers. Within this training setting, the word "doctor" meant scholar or teacher long before it came to refer to a physician. Special schools devoted primarily to the education of teachers developed much later, however.

Religious, Political, Social, and Economic Factors

The American colonies were influenced in their educational outlook and activities by the contemporary ideas and practices of their mother country England (Frazier, 1935). The influence of other western European countries was felt, but only in limited geographical areas. Provisions for schooling made by the early settlers appear, when judged by modern standards, to have been exceedingly meager. The difficult physical environment and the unstable and primitive living conditions of a pioneer country handicapped progress.

For two centuries or more the matter of specific professional education of teachers was given almost no attention (Frazier, 1935; Woodring, 1975). More basic tasks confronted the colonies and the early states. Only, after victories to establish free, tax-supported public schools were gained, could the establishment of state-supported teacher preparation institutions occur.

As in Europe, the church was predominantly the institution of early America through which not only the religious but also the educational heritage was preserved and extended (Frazier, 1935; Holmes, 1963; McMahon, 1950; Woodring, 1975). Its existence operated toward the advancement of the whole idea of common school education. The ability to read the Bible was deemed essential by the Protestant churches, and the establishment of elementary schools was motivated by the desire to impart this ability to all of the people. This extension of public education to all social classes greatly increased the demand for teachers (Knight, 1945).

During the eighteenth-century (Woodring, 1975), Prussia led the way in the training of teachers. Frederick William I, who first promoted a compulsory school law, issued in 1734 his Principia Regulativa which prescribed the training of teachers as well as the school curriculum (Alexander, 1929).

Shortly after the U. S. Revolution, the founding fathers began to follow the European example and to extend the systems of the public schools that had been established during the colonial period. Several decades were to elapse, however, before any concrete effort was made to prepare the teachers for those schools (Woodring, 1975).

Nature of Educational Institutions

The status of elementary schools in 1839 was still low although the methods of teaching were being gradually improved. The content of the instruction was expanding and more attention was being given to the schools in general. Memory work and drill were stressed.

The forerunner of the American secondary schools was the Latin grammar school. The first such school was established in Boston in 1635 (Frazier, 1935). The classics--Latin, Greek, Hebrew, religion, philosophy, and ethics--were the subjects offered for study; the classes were traditional, formal, and limited in scope. Preparation for college was stressed (Brown, E. E., 1907). Although many teachers received a general education in the Latin grammar schools, the specific education of teachers was not undertaken in these schools. The services of this school were confined to rather distinct social classes; this reinforced the idea that education should only be allowed for a select and small minority of the population (Holmes, 1963). Women were not allowed to attend. Toward the time of the Revolution, the limitations of the Latin grammar school became increasingly evident. As a more comprehensive institution, the academy arose. Benjamin Franklin, in his plan for the establishment of the Adademy and Charitable School of the Province of Pennsylvania (chartered in 1753), made mention of the need for teacher preparation:

A number of the poorer sort will hereby be qualified to act as schoolmasters in the country, to teach children reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar of their mother tongue, and being of good morals and known character, may be recommended from the academy to country school for that purpose - the country suffering very much at present for want of good schoolmasters. (Wickersham, 1886, p. 60)

Prior to 1800, there were no systematic efforts to prepare teachers for their responsibilities (Elsbree, 1963). The earliest date when anything like a planned effort appeared to have been made was in 1806.

At that time the Lancasterian method of teaching with its model schools for demonstration purposes was instituted in New York, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania. Many individuals who aspired to teach attended those model schools. Whatever the limitations of that instructional method, it stimulated great interest in teacher preparation. Elsbree (1963) indicated that the method "is often referred to as the forerunner of the normal school" (p. 177). The Lancasterian method, in turn, led to the establishment in 1823 of a seminary in the form of an academy in Concord, Vermont.

The period from 1800-1836 was not marked by any widespread establishment of teacher seminaries/academies. Rather, it was a period of agitation prior to the Civil War. The academy actually contributed little to the solution of the teacher training problem (Elsbree, 1963). The academy program for the preparation of teachers did not vary significantly from the general program available to regular students. As an educational institution, however, the academy did move forward the educational activities surrounding teacher preparation (Frazier, 1935).

In 1821, the high school, a more democratic institution than the academy, was established. While that institution contributed little to the development of the specific preparation of teachers during the period, its advent marked an important step in the democratization of education.

Nine colleges were established during the colonial period: four in the New England states, four in the Middle Atlantic states, and one in Virginia (Frazier, 1935; Tewksbury, 1932). Many teachers in the Latin

grammar schools, academies, and high schools received their general education in the colleges. The colleges were usually small and were controlled predominantly by the several competing church denominations. This form of governance supported the belief of the church as the guardian of education (Holmes, 1963).

Qualifications of Teachers

Before the establishment of the first normal schools, the status of common school teachers in the U. S. was extremely poor. Specific professional preparation of teachers was almost unknown (Elsbree, 1963; Frazier, 1935; Ulich, M. E., 1958). The academic preparation of the typical elementary teacher included little more than nominal mastery of the subjects that he or she taught in the schools. The salaries were very low, the school term was short, teacher tenure was brief, the prestige of teachers was low, and emphasis upon methodology and pedagogical principles was almost non-existent (Elsbree, 1963; Frazier, 1935).

The teachers were a product of the particular social order of their day. According to Samuel R. Hall, founder of the Concord Academy in 1823, different classes of persons engaged in teaching.

A portion of those who engage in teaching are such as have received no instruction, except what they derived from common schools. The employment is little more respectable, in their estimation, than manual labor. . . .

Another class of teachers are those, who, in addition to the benefits of the district school, have resorted to an academy for a single season. . . . Some are instrumental in raising the character of their schools, while others do more

harm than good. . . . Yet all lack instruction in those things which regard the business of teaching.

There is another class who engage in teaching for a season, for the sake of pecuniary compensation. They are preparing for college . . . and while they are paying exclusive attention to classical studies . . . their qualifications are not better than those who were included in the class before mentioned, and they are perhaps even inferior. (Hall, 1829, pp. 26-27)

According to Hall, therefore, teachers represented a cross section of the population as a whole.

Certification of teachers during the colonial days was regulated by the local ministers and town authorities. The applicants were to be "sound in faith" and possess a smattering knowledge of the subjects to be taught (Martin, 1894). The requirements for conjoined civil and ecclesiastical teaching licenses existed as early as 1645 (Dunshee, 1883).

While certification practices were gradually taken over by civil authorities, requirements were low everywhere in 1839. For a long time thereafter, according to M. T. Mann (1891), even the requirements that were set up were laxly administered. For example, the legally required examinations of teachers appeared to have been perfunctory, when they were given at all.

Practically all of the agencies issuing certificates were local, and the certificates had local validity only. Certification served chiefly as a safeguard against the admission of incompetent or undesirable teachers.

Establishment of the First Teacher Preparation Institutions in America

The first noteworthy advocacy of teacher preparation in this country followed the establishment of "a public grammar school in each county of the State [of Massachusetts]. . ." (Ticknor, cited in Mann, H., 1842, pp. 169-170). In 1816, Professor Denison Olmstead, of Yale College, in a commencement address at that institution, made an appeal for a free, state-supported seminary for schoolmasters. Professor James L. Kingsley in 1823, William Russell in 1823, Thomas H. Gallaudet in 1825, Walter R. Johnson in 1825, Henry E. Dwight in 1829, Charles C. Brooks in 1835, Calvin E. Stowe in 1837, and others spoke and wrote upon the subject (Gordy, 1891).

The academy constituted the first significant agency in this country to attempt the specific professional education of teachers on any considerable scale (Elsbree, 1963; Frazier, 1935). Beginnings were said to have been made at Zion Parnassus Academy near Salisbury, North Carolina, in 1785. Other academies that included teacher preparation programs were established at Westtown Boarding School by the Society of Friends in Pennsylvania in 1799, and at Nazareth Hall in the same state in 1807.

The academies were content with a single course in pedagogy, "principles of teaching" (Annual Report, 1840, p. 77). The academies gave little or no attention to student teaching. The preparation of teachers was not their primary objective.

The early practices and offerings in teacher preparation from the Canadagua Academy (New York) are representative:

About four years since, a teachers department was organized on the following plan: 1st. That those young gentlemen who entered this school to prepare themselves for teachers, should enter the classes pursuing those branches in which they wished, or it was deemed necessary, to perfect themselves. 2nd. The teachers to be organized into a class and to receive a specific course of instruction on the following plan: To meet 5 evenings each week and spend 2 or 3 hours together. On 3 evenings of each week, Hall's lectures on school-keeping are recited till the book is finished and thoroughly reviewed. . . . The remaining evening of the week is devoted to the consideration of a series of subjects; one being discussed on each evening. Each member of the class brings in a written subject. . . . Mutual conversation is called forth. . . . The subjects discussed on these evenings are nearly the following, and in the order mentioned:

1. The defects in common schools.
2. The circumstances which restrain and discourage the efforts of the teacher.
3. The best modes of teaching the alphabet, reading, and spelling.
4. The best modes of teaching arithmetic, and the best books.
5. The best modes of teaching geography.
6. The best modes of teaching English grammar.
7. The best modes of teaching writing and making pens.
8. Pestalozzi and his mode of instruction.
9. Government of schools.
10. Best methods of arresting the attention of pupils.
11. How to teach composition.
12. What plans can the teacher adopt to render his labors more extensively useful to his pupils?
13. Construction of schoolhouses.

This course of instruction is designed to continue one quarter of each year. (Annual Report, 1835, pp. 65-67)

In 1823, Samuel R. Hall founded the first private normal school at Concord, Vermont (Hofstadter & Hardy, 1952). In 1830, Hall moved that normal school from Concord to Andover, Massachusetts, where the normal

or teachers' course was three years in length. The courses were designed to give students, most of whom enrolled with training equivalent to that of the upper elementary or junior high school level, an education preparatory to the work of the professional teaching course (Barnard, 1858). Instruction in the common branches and special lectures in the "art of teaching" were offered. The boys department of the academy served as a model school.

By 1836, there were several teachers' seminaries in existence in New York and Massachusetts; in addition, there were one or more of the seminaries in Indiana, Illinois, New Hampshire, and Maine. Usually the units were departments of academies. The institutions in New York, and those later in Wisconsin, best illustrated the growth of teacher preparation in state-subsidized academies.

As early as 1821, the Regents of the University of the State of New York stated in their report to the legislature that the seminaries must supply the teachers for the common schools. In 1826, Governor DeWitt Clinton of New York recommended the establishment of a seminary for teachers. In 1827, an act was passed in New York which increased the literature fund and contained a provision designed "to promote the education of teachers" (Finegan, 1917, p. 2; Hough, 1885, p. 526). In the U. S. the first law passed making a provision for the education, in separate departments, of teachers for the common schools was in New York in 1834 (Finegan, 1917).

Publicly supported institutions for the preparation of teachers in the U. S. developed slowly. The first step was usually state aid to

academies to be spent on teacher preparation. Following this came separate schools for teachers. In 1839, Massachusetts became the first state to establish full state support and control of normal schools for teacher education (Elsbree, 1963; Frazier, 1935; Russell, W. E., 1940).

The work of James G. Carter of Boston directed the attention of leaders in Massachusetts to the relationship between teacher education and school improvements (Barnard, 1851; Messerli, 1963). Early in the 1820s, Carter had written a series of articles entitled "As is the teacher, so is the school" in the Boston Patriot citing teacher incompetence as a primary problem of the elementary school (Cremin, 1953a). From that series of essays came the impetus to establish the first publicly supported normal school at Lexington, Massachusetts, on July 3, 1839 (Cremin, 1953a; Elsbree, 1963; Frazier, 1935; Hofstadter & Hardy, 1952; Rowland, 1945; Russell, W. E., 1940; Woodring, 1975). Cyrus Peirce, the principal of that school, described his task in an early journal article (Peirce and Swift, 1926). He taught ten subjects in a single term and 17 different subjects in the course of a year, supervised a model school of 30 pupils, acted as a demonstration teacher, developed the professional materials to be taught, and served as janitor of the building (Cremin, 1953a; Elsbree, 1963; Messerli, 1963; Peirce and Swift, 1926).

In summary. Throughout the period, the educational system in the United States began to grow. Educational trends and ideas were greatly influenced by practices in England. Institutions for teacher education gradually developed. As the period closed, the first publicly supported normal school for teacher training was established.

Establishment and Growth of Normal Schools and Normal
Departments in Colleges and Universities, 1839-1865

The population of the United States more than doubled between 1840-1870. The country was still predominantly rural but the number of people moving to the cities was increasing. The estimated national wealth of the country was increasing even more rapidly than the population. With the majority of students enrolled in the public elementary schools, the problem of teacher preparation was still chiefly concerned with prospective elementary teachers or untrained elementary teachers in service (Frazier, 1935).

Growth of state support and control of the normal schools continued steadily. Centralization of educational controls within the state was beginning to make substantial gains. After stronger centralized state departments of education were established, growth and effective control of the normal schools could be attained (Elsbree, 1963; Frazier, 1935).

The growth of these state-supported normal schools was slow throughout this period. A few municipal normal schools and teacher training schools to satisfy local demands were founded. Among these were schools in Boston, New York City, Philadelphia, San Francisco, Baltimore, St. Louis, and Trenton (Elsbree, 1963; Woodring, 1975).

Status of Teachers

The characteristics of the ideal teacher as envisioned by educators during this period included many of the traits and qualities commonly advocated today (Elsbree, 1963). Moral character ranked high; the teacher needed to lead an exemplary life (Ulrich, M. E., 1958).

Cooperation and fairness in action were key traits to possess. Judging by the reports of early examiners, competency in the three R's, together with some knowledge of orthography, English grammar, and geography, and capacity to govern a school were considered essential in teaching.

The status of teachers improved very slowly. Occupational prestige increased gradually in conjunction with increases in salary, professional preparations, and certification standards (Ulich, M. E., 1958).

The typical elementary teachers throughout this period had little more than an upper elementary school preparation. There were not enough normal schools, normal departments, or teachers' institutes to do more than make good beginnings toward meeting the needs for trained teachers (Frazier, 1935). For those who did graduate even from a normal school, they could claim little more than a certain amount of secondary school preparation even though mastery of subject matter was emphasized (Cremin, 1953a). There was limited professional work.

Many books were written on education and means of improving schools (Russell, W. E., 1940). State association journals multiplied in numbers; established were the American Journal of Education, later called the American Annals of Education, and Henry Barnard's American Journal of Education (Frazier, 1935). Educational Journal was often used as much as a tool for teacher training as a professional guide for teachers ("Growth of Teacher," 1963).

As various private societies and associations for the promotion of schools were organized, the teachers began to organize groups to improve

their professional status. The National Teachers' Association, later called the National Education Association, held its first organizational meeting in 1857 ("Organization Meeting," 1858).

Certification of Teachers

Changes in methods of certification of teachers and in requirements for certification were made slowly. During its history, the locus of control of certification was gradually shifted from the local, to the county, to the state level (Bush, R. N. & Enemark, P., 1975). During this period county control of licensing was emerging (Kinney, 1964). The prevailing feature of certification was the teacher examination--dominated by elementary school subjects. Each state emphasized evidences of proficiencies in language, writing, and arithmetic. By the end of the period, beginnings toward recognizing normal school and/or college preparation as a basis for certification were made.

Establishment and Growth of State Normal Schools

After the opening of the normal school in Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1839, similar institutions were gradually established in other states. The locations of the institutions and the dates of their legal establishment and opening are shown in Table 1 (Humphreys, 1923).

The establishment of state normal schools during the period was usually brought about after considerable agitation and effort. Their existence was precarious after their founding. The state was trustee of

Table 1
STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS OPENING BETWEEN 1839-1865

State and Location of Institution	Date of Legal Establishment	Date Opened
1	2	3
<u>Massachusetts:</u>		
Lexington (West Newton, Framingham)	1838	1839
Barre (Westfield)	1838	1839
Bridgewater	1838	1840
New York: Albany	1844	1844 ^a
Connecticut: New Britain	1849	1850
Michigan: Ypsilanti	1849	1853
Massachusetts: Salem	1853	1854
Rhode Island: Providence	1854	1854
New Jersey: Trenton	1855	1855
Illinois: Normal	1857	1857
<u>Pennsylvania:</u>		
Millersville	1857	1859
Edinboro	1857	1861
Mansfield	1857	1862
Louisiana: New Orleans	1858	1858 ^b
Minnesota: Winona	1858	1860
New York: Oswego	1861	1861 ^c
California: San Francisco (San Jose)	1862	1862
Maine: Farmington	1863	1864
Kansas: Emporia	1863	1865

^aTraining classes established in academies in 1834.

^bThe State Normal School of Louisiana (New Orleans) existed in this period from 1858-1862.

^cCity training school until 1866, when it was made a state normal school. State aid authorized in 1863.

the property and responsible for its support ("A Normal School," 1857). Modest appropriations for their maintenance was usually made for a year or two by the state legislatures.

In the beginning, courses of study in state normal schools were one year in length. After about a decade, the courses were advanced to approximately one and a half years in length (Cremin, 1953a; Elsbree, 1963; Frazier, 1935; Russell, W. E., 1940).

At first the curricula consisted largely of upper elementary and lower secondary grade subjects and included a review of those common branches/subjects, with discussion on the methods of teaching them (Triosi, 1960; Woodring, 1975). Core subjects, arithmetic, grammar, geography, and reading, were emphasized (Elsbree, 1963). Courses of pedagogy were in evidence under varying titles: theory, art, practice, or science of teaching; principles of teaching; model school work or practice teaching, including observation; method courses in various subjects; school laws; history of education; philosophy of education (Cremin, 1953a; Elsbree, 1963; Frazier, 1935; Russell, W. E., 1940; Sunderman, 1945; Woodring, 1962b). H. I. Schmidt's History of Education, published by Harper's Family Library in 1842, was probably the first textbook on the subject of the history of education written in English in this country. During this period texts discussed the history of education and reforms in Europe.

In most normal schools, textbooks were meager (Frazier, 1935). Toward the end of the period, Theory and Practice of Teaching, written in 1847 by David P. Page, was undoubtedly the most widely used pedagogical work in the country (Knight, 1945).

Throughout this period, it was necessary to allow for a flexibility of the course organization in the normal schools; the students came to the institutions with widely varying degrees of preliminary preparation. Some were experienced teachers. Others were just beginning their study. Requirements for admission to the early normal schools were usually based on examinations in elementary school subjects. Evidence of good, moral character was to be submitted (Cremin, 1953a; Frazier, 1935). A declaration of intention to teach was a necessity. The minimum age of the applicant was to be 16 years old for a female and 17 years old for a male.

Many of the normal school students came from impoverished environments. A quote from a letter by H. B. Norton, a student at Illinois State Normal University in 1858, helps to identify the time and conditions.

We were shabbily dressed in those days. I think my pantaloons were generally too short, and my coat seemed to have been made for some other person. We were very poor, but very plucky. We boarded ourselves, mainly on corn mash, washed the floors and built the fires at the Normal Hall, worked hard, lived hard, and were poorly provided with all things; our parents were sad-faced struggling pioneers of the prairies; but we were cheery, resolute, and happy in our life and our work. To the toiling youth of frontier homes, thirsting for knowledge, the Illinois Normal University opened the gateways of a new life. . . . (Norton, cited in Cook & McHugh, 1882, pp. 173-174)

Educational form and structure will constantly be influenced by the culture of which it is a part (Wayland, 1963). The socio-economic problems of urbanization, industrialization, minority and subcultural

group structures, and ideological struggles will continually affect these teacher training areas: (a) the level of training on which teacher education is provided; (b) the recruitment of students; (c) the content of teacher education programs; and (d) the relationship of teacher education to other forms and levels of education (Lafferty, 1939b).

Growth of City Training Classes and Schools

Development of city normal schools resulted largely from municipalities wanting to add to their supply of teachers specifically prepared for local service and to improve the performance of teachers already employed. These institutions typically had high admission levels and offered considerable practice work. Founding of these schools did not appreciably affect the flow of teachers from usual academic sources. Cremin (1953a) indicated that excellent progress in teacher training was continually maintained by use of these ingredients:

1. To guarantee command of elementary subject matter and to ensure the ability to teach effectively, complete secondary education or higher;
2. To enhance subject matter, include an extensive treatment of the theoretical principles of teaching;
3. To enhance advanced secondary studies, give attention to a method of forming "helpful hints regarding teaching"; and

4. To augment the art of teaching, develop a practical sense of application.

Decline of Teacher Preparation in the Academies

The academies continued to increase in numbers and in students until 1850. Thereafter they slowly began to decline in number, and eventually they were supplanted by the normal schools in teacher preparation.

Teacher Preparation in Normal Departments of Colleges

As colleges began to provide a great number of students with a general collegiate education, some efforts were made to incorporate teacher training in a normal department within the college. For example, in 1838, Lafayette College in Pennsylvania erected a building for a model school. Normal department courses never became accepted for any length of time as an integral part of regular collegiate offerings. Concerning these attempts, a noted historian, James Wickerham (1886), expressed his opinion:

The experience of educating teachers in the colleges failed--because there was not then much demand for teachers thus prepared, and for the stronger reason that the general work of a college and the special work of a teachers' school can never be made to harmonize. (p. 381)

Eventually the normal departments were either discontinued or evolved with difficulty into regular collegiate departments of pedagogy.

In summary. Although the population of the United States was predominantly rural, migration to the cities was increasing. The focus

of teacher preparation was centered in an effort of supplying elementary teachers as primary student enrollments grew. Normal schools were established as institutions for teacher training. Centralization of educational controls was concentrated in the hands of the state.

Rapid Growth of Normal Schools and Beginnings of
Departments of Pedagogy, 1865-1890

The population of the United States grew approximately by one-fourth, 6 or 7 million people, during each decade from the close of the Civil War to 1890. Expansion of the West continued. Population of the cities increased by 10 percent. The beginnings of the Industrial Revolution directly affected the schools and the training of the teachers for those schools (Joyce, 1975).

Schooling as a social institution lies close to the value core of the society (Joyce & Weil, 1972; Lafferty, 1939b; Wayland, 1963). Most schools during this period were reflections of the basic cultural themes and the predominant economic conception of man. The schools, therefore, were shaped by the educational needs of the society in the early days of the Industrial Revolution. Thus, the mode of education of the teachers for those schools represented the current conception of the nature of man and the place of education in his life (Joyce, 1975). Both schooling and the process of educating the teachers became supportive of the culture (Lafferty, 1939b).

Advancement within the socio-economic structure of society was rooted in getting an education. According to Superintendent Francis Parker of the Cook County (Chicago) Normal School,

education is the generation of power; and the generation of power in the right way is the very highest economy of which man can conceive. We learn to do by doing, to hear by hearing, and to think by thinking. We see with all we have seen, we do with all we have done, and we think with all we have thought. ("The County Normal," 1883, p. 4)

The educational training of children was regarded as one of the most potent sources upon which the aspirations of the world were based ("The Training of Teachers," 1874). "That work which substantially improves the human race continues a beneficent power, forever and ever, and such work the true teacher does," stated Richard Edwards, the Illinois State Superintendent, at an educational convention in Chicago in 1887 ("A Great Educational," 1887, p. 4). The teacher was urged to stress thoroughness in schoolroom work, greater attention to details of the lessons, closer observation of the students' efforts, and increased drill in fundamental principles ("A Great Educational," 1887).

The period reflected the belief in mental discipline in education (Russell, W. E., 1940). The Lockian psychology of traditional order and of individual authority was the chief instrumentality of instructional progress (Frazier, 1935; Joyce, 1975). A stern, regimented environment promoted the value of strict discipline and moral authority.

Toffler (1970) summarized the form, structure, and substance of that early training:

The whole idea of assembling masses of students (raw material) to be processed by teachers (workers) in a centrally located school (factory) was a stroke of industrial genius. The whole administration hierarchy of education, as it grew

up, followed the model of industrial bureaucracy. The very organization of knowledge into permanent discipline was grounded on industrial assumptions. (p. 355)

Status of Teachers

Throughout the period, the preparation of teachers was a growing challenge. In 1890, the number of teachers employed was one-third of a million with the number of school children increasing by about 3 million each decade.

Salaries were higher. An article, "The Schoolmams Well Enough Paid," in the Chicago Tribune, in January 1890, contended that the female school teachers were the best paid women in Chicago and did not deserve an increase in salary for "work which does not call for an intellectual ability of higher order" (p. 4). The writer of the article contended that school teachers worked 1,200 hours yearly and should receive no more than 80¢ for each work hour. In 1880 across the U. S., monthly salaries ranged from \$35 for a female teacher and less than \$45 for a male teacher (Frazier, 1935); the salaries had increased from \$12.75 per month for a female teacher and \$33.08 per month for a male teacher in 1839-1840 (Frazier, 1935).

Improvement of teacher status was appreciably slow. In July 1887, an article in the Chicago Tribune reported on a discussion of the status of teachers at the convention of the National Teachers' Association. E. E. Higbee, State Superintendent of Schools in Pennsylvania, reported that

public sentiment is so well settled on the importance of retaining teachers who have shown themselves efficient and suitable that no school board would think of removing them. A well-equipped, zealous, and effective teacher who adopts her business and profession and devotes herself to it earnestly and enthusiastically, with no thought of marriage, has a sure tenure of office as if she were elected for life. ("Some Educational Topics," 1887, p. 4)

Three causes for removal were acknowledged: (a) the personal desire of the teacher to quit, (b) marriage, and (c) inefficiency.

In September 1890, the same newspaper addressed the question of a married teacher. Single women were generally preferred as teachers for the reason that no domestic obstacles stood in the way of their efficiency. A married woman who had a husband to support her would unjustly deprive a single (unmarried) woman of having a means of support. The newspaper presented the idea that a married woman could reach the same standard of efficiency as an unmarried woman, and if her husband was unwilling or unable to support her, it was unjust if she could not earn a living in a position for which she was suited. The newspaper stated, "There is never any danger that the roll of teachers in any city will be overcrowded with married women. It is a matter which always will regulate itself without difficulty" ("Married School Teacher," 1890, p. 4).

Certification requirements became more and more centralized under the control of state authorities (Stinnett, 1969). Certification by examination prevailed. John Swett (1867) contended that

no one cause has done so much to render the occupation of a public school teacher so distasteful as the old system of annual examinations. Teachers are condemned to be tried, not by a jury of their peers, but too often by men who knew little or nothing of practical teaching. . . . Actual trial in the school-room is the best test of fitness to teach; and when a teacher has once passed examination, and proved successful in school, subsequent examinations are uncalled for and unnecessary. (p. 172)

The real significance of the growth of state control was that the power to certify was taken from the layman, who too often placed certification into the arena of politics.

Rapid Growth of State Normal Schools

After 1860, the normal school was regarded as the proper institution for preparing teachers (Cremin, 1953a). The years immediately following the Civil War saw an expansion of the normal school movement (Elsbree, 1963). By the end of this period, 92 state normal schools for white students were in existence (Frazier, 1935).

Political and local influences, rather than any intellectual forecasts of future institutional and state needs, directly determined the location of these normal schools. The old German tradition that a small-town or village environment was best suited for preparing prospective teachers decided the location of some normal schools (Humphreys, 1923).

In 1867, the Cook County Normal School at Englewood (Chicago), Illinois, was founded by the Board of Supervisors of the county "for the educational training of school teachers" ("The County Normal," 1869,

p. 2). The establishment of the Cook County Normal School made it possible for its common schools to partially meet their requirements for trained teachers (Cremin, 1953a).

The design of the Cook County Normal School encouraged the production of teachers rather than scholars. Thus, prospective teachers were expected to achieve a degree of proficiency in the ordinary school studies in the two year course and were required to sign a declaration of intent to teach ("The County Normal," 1869). During the two years following its establishment, 96 pupils were in attendance of whom 74 had attended both years; 28 of these had taught before entering the school ("Cook County Normal," 1869). Twelve of the 28 members of the first graduation class (1869) were appointed as teachers within the schools of Cook County at salaries ranging from \$450 to \$1,200 per year ("Cook County Normal," 1869).

The incomes of these state institutions from state appropriations and tuition were decidedly low. In 1870, \$8,000 to \$9,000 could be estimated as the yearly income of the typical institution. Each student was charged an average tuition fee of \$173 per year (U. S. Office of Education, 1875). Around 1880, the county of Cook contributed about \$15,000 annually to the Cook County Normal School, and a tuition fee of \$30 per year was charged to nonresidents of Cook County to attend the school ("Cook County Normal," 1869). These funds were used to purchase school furniture and works of reference. Private contributions went to the colleges rather than the normal schools (U. S. Office of Education, 1875). Thus, the bulk of maintenance of these schools came from appropriations by state legislatures.

Special facilities and apparatus were meager. In respect to library books, in 1870, a high estimate would be 1,300 volumes per institution; in 1890, 3,800 volumes (U. S. Office of Education, 1875). Textbooks were usually supplied by the normal schools; however, students were encouraged to bring with them whatever books they had.

The academic courses taught in the normal schools of this period were intermixed with a review of elementary subjects. The development of the courses and curricula in the normal schools rested upon the often limited ability of the students to achieve high academic scholarship ("Illinois Normal School," 1865).

A steady development of professional courses grew out of the application of scientific methods of research to the field of education and the accumulation and organization for instructional purposes of materials based upon field experience. As a result a wide range of courses emerged ("Educational Problems," 1887). The study of psychology had a marked growth (Frazier, 1935). Theory and art of teaching became "method courses" with an average time of six months given to their study ("Educational Problems," 1887). History of education was becoming a clear cut and distinctive field and was taught an average of 13 weeks ("Educational Problems," 1887).

An expanding rationale for professional courses is illustrated by William Jolly's plan for basing a science of education course on a recognition of the mental, physical, and moral organism of the child ("The Training of Teachers," 1874); instruction was $15 \frac{2}{3}$ weeks in length. Jolly declared,

In short, the professor of education would have, on the one hand, to investigate and expound to his students all parts of all science that bear on education, as physiology, psychology, phrenology, moral philosophy, the history of education, the experience of educators, and the like; and deduce from them the true principles of education. On the other hand, he would have to show the best application of those principles to the various subjects of school instruction, and criticize existing methods and present and past systems of education by their light. ("The Training of Teachers," 1874, p. 6)

There existed a universal opinion that practice teaching was indispensable; it was to be done under wise supervision. Thus, student teaching and observations were included in teacher education. The average time given to practice work in 1887 was about 175 lessons of 45 minutes each. Student teachers engaged in critical work by watching an instructing teacher; they would freely criticize the methods used and report successes or state faults ("The County Normal," 1883).

Under the leadership of Edward Sheldon, the Oswego Normal School in New York became the tested example of a model school (Troisi, 1960). From this normal school radiated the natural and simple methods and philosophy of Pestalozzi. The principles of the system included these aspects:

1. The instruction should be based upon the natural development of children, their instincts, capacities, and interests;
2. The teacher's knowledge of the nature of children is fundamental in teaching;
3. The child is an individual;
4. The materials of his instruction are means, not ends; and
5. The immediate environment and experiences of the child are the most valuable materials of instruction. (Knight, 1945, p. 155)

Pestalozzi's method, known as object teaching, gave the teacher a more active role than that of just hearing recitation; rather, it led to curriculum expansion--oral language, nature study, home geography, and primary arithmetic (Hockett & Bond, 1953). Enthusiasts of this method were not content to let the simple principles remain simple; the informal was formalized and specialized. As Pestalozzi had foreseen, the outward form of the procedure began to appear as the real substance of his method--a danger which has always menaced good ideas in education (Knight, 1945). "To mistake the clothing of an idea for the idea itself" caused the Pestalozzianism advocates to misinterpret his principles and led to the discrediting of the method.

Following closely on the heels of the loss of status of Pestalozzi's method, the pedagogical interpreters promoted Herbart's doctrine of interest. Herbart believed in individualized instruction with emphasis placed on history and literature in the elementary school curriculum. His "five formal steps" method of teaching consisted of preparation, presentation, comparison, generalization, and application (Hockett & Bond, 1953). Herbart thought that pedagogy should not merely be taught but also be demonstrated and practiced (Dunkel, 1967). His educational ideas were not popular and therefore did not spread. Thus teacher education, for the most part, continued to be guided by the principles that prevailed when normal schools were first established.

The length of the regular normal school courses of study ranged from two to four years in 1870. After 1890, as the normal schools became teachers colleges or colleges of education, four-year curricula were gradually introduced.

Admission requirements to the normal schools rose slowly. Admission standards of a normal school in Farmington, Massachusetts, in 1889-1890, are illustrative of the period:

A candidate of admission must be at least 16 years old (one who lacks more than a few days of that age need not apply); and it is very desirable that she should be several years older. . . . She must bring from a former teacher, or, if that is not possible, from some other responsible person, a certificate of such intellectual and moral qualities as are essential to a teacher; she must pass a satisfactory examination in arithmetic, geography, history of the United States, and the English language (including reading, writing, spelling, definition, grammar, and composition); and must pledge herself to teach, after completing the course of study, in the public schools of Massachusetts for at least one year. . . . A thorough high-school course, or its equivalent in some other good school, and some experience in teaching, though not conditions for entrance, are very desirable as preparation for normal-school work. . . . (Catalog and Circular, 1890, p. 14)

Student mortality in the institutions was high. The students had little incentive to undertake much advanced work, since the salaries paid a teacher were extremely low.

Private and Black Normal Schools

In 1880, there were 14 private normal schools listed by the U. S. Office of Education. As the states entered the field of teacher preparation education, the number of private normal schools began to pass out of existence.

Since 1865, the number of blacks in this country increased an average of a million per decade. At first, illiteracy was prevalent.

Then the Industrial Revolution stressed their need of education. The establishment of elementary and secondary schools for blacks was followed by the founding of institutions for training black teachers. The institutions not only prepared teachers for black schools but also encouraged the vocational, cultural, and religious upbuilding of the race (Dickerman, cited in Jones, T. J., 1917).

Decline of Normal Departments: Rise of Departments of Pedagogy

The general characteristics of the normal departments of the colleges remained much the same during this period as they were before the close of the Civil War (Frazier, 1935). The approximate number of colleges established in this country between 1860-1869 was 93; between 1870-1879, 85; and between 1880-1889, 99 (U. S. Office of Education, 1921). Normal departments were primarily interested in preparing elementary teachers. By 1890, however, high school grade courses were found in about one-fourth of these colleges.

The academic status of the normal departments of the colleges was not high. For example, Addis (1893) stated:

It may be said that an intelligent graduate of a thoroughly taught high school who had attentively read Compayre's History of Pedagogical Ideas, a book on methods and management, and Sully's Psychology, for example, might graduate immediately and with honor from the great majority of the normal departments or teacher courses of our colleges and universities. (p. 1020).

The normal departments of the colleges eventually evolved into regular college departments of pedagogy or education. After 1879,

because of the rapid development of public high schools and school systems, the evolved departments began preparing teachers for the secondary schools (Frazier, 1935).

The department of pedagogy was the true progenitor of teacher education today. The first genuine department of education was established as a chair of science and the art of teaching at the University of Michigan in 1879. William Payne, M. A., was appointed as head by the board of regents at a salary of \$2,200 per year (University of Michigan, 1881). The purposes of that school's department of pedagogy were listed in the school catalog as follows:

1. To fit university students for the higher positions in the public-school systems;
2. To promote the study of educational science;
3. To teach the history of education, and of educational systems and doctrines;
4. To secure the rights, prerogatives, and advantages of a profession; and
5. To give a more perfect unity to our State educational system by bringing the secondary schools into closer relations with the university. (University of Michigan Calendar, 1880, pp. 44-45)

The early growth of departments of pedagogy was slow. Michigan and Iowa developed their departments at about the same time, 1879. Establishment of a department of pedagogy then followed at the University of Wisconsin, 1885, headed by John W. Stearns; Indiana University, 1886, under Richard G. Boone; Cornell University, 1886-1887, headed by Dr. S. R. Williams. In all, possibly 12 institutions, Michigan, Iowa, Wisconsin, Indiana University, Cornell University, the University of California, John Hopkins, Clark University, Ohio University, Iowa College, Northwestern University, and Teachers College

at Columbia, had founded chairs or departments of pedagogy or education by 1891 (Kandel, 1924; Knight, 1945).

The pedagogical courses offered by several higher institutions changed little during this period. The following courses offered by the University of Michigan can be considered representative of the leading college grade departments of pedagogy in 1889-1890:

FIRST SEMESTER

1. Practical: The arts of teaching and governing; methods of instruction and general schoolroom practice; school hygiene; school law. Recitations and lectures. Textbook: Compayre's Lectures of Pedagogy.
3. History of education: Ancient and mediaeval. Recitations and lectures. Textbook: Compayre's History of Pedagogy.
5. School supervision: Embracing general school management, the art of grading and arranging courses of study, the conduct of institutes, etc. Recitations and lectures. Textbook: Payne's Chapters on School Supervision.

SECOND SEMESTER

2. Theoretical and critical: The principles underlying the arts of teaching and governing. Lectures.
4. History of education: Modern, Recitations and lectures. Textbook: Compayre's History of Pedagogy.
6. The comparative study of educational systems, domestic and foreign. Lectures.
7. Seminary. Study and discussion of special topics in the history and philosophy of education. (University of Michigan Calendar, 1890, p. 56)

Much flexibility and variation existed in the arrangement and organization of the courses and in the terminology. Generally, the courses extended over three or four years of regular college curricula. Duplication of content occurred among the courses. Cornell

provided a little observation; student teaching was almost nonexistent before 1893 in the university departments of pedagogy.

Since the field of education was not well developed, courses in education were taught by instructors of other subject matter departments. Professional preparation was slight.

In summary. The Industrial Revolution not only affected the economic growth of the United States but it also directly affected the schools and the training of the teacher for those schools. The state normal schools were regarded throughout the period as the proper institutions for preparing teachers. As the period came to a close, the normal departments of the colleges were being replaced by departments of pedagogy as responsible agencies for the training of teachers.

Evolution of Teachers Colleges and Growth of Schools and Colleges of Education, 1890-1933

The greatest growth in the history of this country in general education and in the professional education of teachers occurred around 1900 (Frazier, 1935). The number of elementary school children increased from 12,519,618 in 1890 to 21,278,593 in 1930; the number of secondary pupils increased from 202,963 in 1890 to 4,399,422 in 1930 (Foster and others, cited in Frazier, 1935). Yet the proportion of the number of children of school age to the total population of the country was decreasing. This meant that the preparation of teachers was fast approaching maintenance or the renewal basis. Decreased birth rates and decreased class sizes pointed to the probability of preparing fewer teachers at the end of this period.

The extraordinary increase in the number of high schools in the country during the period helped to explain the growth of teachers colleges (Evenden, 1943). Teachers colleges and colleges and universities began to prepare teachers for the junior high schools and the high schools (Frazier, 1935).

Throughout this period state departments of education grew in size and strength. States, through their departments of education, began to assume more direct control over the teacher preparation institutions and over the administration of teacher certification requirements. It is difficult to tell who had the greatest voice in setting the standards during the period of rising state control, but it is clear that various interest groups, sometimes cooperating and sometimes competing, tried to influence state legislatures and other state decision-making agencies.

Increased Certification Requirements

Because education was regarded as a state function, states gradually assumed the responsibility of "guard the gate" to the teaching profession by controlling certification. This trend to centralize the control of teacher certification in the state departments of education began in 1898.

The accepted purpose of certification was "to establish and maintain standards for the preparation and employment of persons who teach or render certain nonteaching services in the schools" (Kinney, 1964, p. 3). Certification was granted at first primarily on the basis of safe-guarding the schools against waste of public funds because of

inefficiency or lack of competence. Certification was the prime instrument by which standards of professional education were improved and refined (Hutson, 1965); therefore, more objective and professional standards began to be established at the state level.

As a part of certification, examinations of prospective teachers were imposed to test elementary or secondary school attainments. The standards for these examinations were set at the state level; the examinations were conducted by county and city officials (Haberman & Stinnett, 1973).

The completion of a specified amount of college or normal school work was included in the requirements for certification. At the turn of the century, educators were advocating combining instruction in methods with instruction in subject matter and emphasizing the need for integration of the two (Cremin, 1953a, Elsbree, 1963). In 1906, one pedagogical subject, the theory and art of teaching, was required on at least one certificate in about three-fourths of the states. The requirement of practice teaching was included as part of the course requirements (Frazier, 1935; Hutson, 1965). In 1926 and thereafter, all states issued one or more certificates upon the basis of graduation from normal school or college (Frazier, 1935). The requirements for certification with respect to college work were steadily raised throughout this period.

The state departments of education "conferred closely with practitioners and their professional organizations" (Bush, R. N. & Enemark, P., 1975, p. 281) in establishing certification requirements.

Historically the strongest voice in teacher education had been conceded to the professors of education, the officers and representatives of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), professors of subject matter disciplines, and college and university administrators. Stinnett (1969) stated that

almost from the beginning of the exercising of centralized state responsibilities for teacher education and certification, state departments of education, in one degree or another, in one manner or another, sought to involve the teaching profession in the public schools and teacher education institutions in deriving fair and effective procedures. (pp. 399-400)

The standards, policies, and resolutions formulated and the attitudes engendered by these groups of educators constituted the powerful agencies for control of the educational practices.

Hutson (1965) described the procedures for developing the early state regulations:

The state regulations were generally the product of extensive deliberation of committees representing teacher educators, public school administrators and teachers, state department personnel, and laymen. They brought together a knowledge of the school subjects and school objectives, of school learners and the learning process, of the variations in teaching positions and conditions. . . . (p. 415)

In a study of certification in 1906, Cubberly found that less than one-fifth of the states made any distinction between elementary school and high school certificates. A state certificate, as well as a local certificate, was good in almost any kind of public school in the geographic area in which the certificate was issued. In most of the states, the only legal requirement for instruction in high school was a

county certificate of one of the regular grades. Differentiation of certificates on basis of grade-group levels of instruction, subjects, or types of teaching positions was established by 1921 (Evenden, 1943; Frazier, 1935). The first subject certification began in Pennsylvania in 1922 and in Indiana in 1923 (Hutson, 1965); from that beginning, the practice of defining the proper preparation which teachers must have for the teaching of each subject spread across the country.

In 1930, 27 states still had no academic requirement for the highest grade of academic high school certificate other than graduation from a recognized college, but 16 states required college graduation, and also a major or minors in subjects to be taught with a specific number of course hours for each (Frazier, 1935).

Because of the diversity of terminology applied to the certificates and because of the diverse nature of the credentials granted, considerable difficulty existed in securing recognition in a given state of a certificate issued by another state. Institutional credits appeared to be utilized as indications of attainments which were transferable among the states (Bachman, 1933). The duration of teaching certificates varied among the states and among the certificates (Evenden, 1943).

Frazier (1935) summarized the changes made in certification of teachers during the period:

1. Centralization of certification from county and other local authorities into the State departments of education;
2. Raising progressively the minimum certification requirements, and at the same time, raising the general level of requirements for all certificates;

3. Increase of certification by specific grade levels, or by teaching fields and types of work;
4. Increase of certification under the authority or auspices of institutions of collegiate grade that prepare teachers, and increased use of institutional credits as a basis of certification;
5. Decrease in certification of graduates of institutions of subcollegiate grade;
6. Increase in requirements in professional education courses, including student teaching;
7. Slow decrease in certification by examination;
8. Increased recognition of the need for State control over, or coordination of, certification, institutional offerings for prospective teachers, and placement of teachers in positions for which they are specifically prepared. (p. 48)

Improvements in Teacher Status

The professional status of teachers was advanced during this period. Regional and national educational associations not only influenced the development of high schools and colleges, but also affected the standards established in the teacher preparation institutions for increasing educational professionalism (Bush, R. N. & Enemark, P., 1975; Frazier, 1935; Hutson, 1965; Stinnett, 1969). The National Education Association (NEA) focused its influence on raising professionalism among American teachers. In 1895, the NEA's Committee of Fifteen recommended the following guidelines on training teachers:

1. Four years required in a high school or in an academy as a minimum prerequisite for elementary teacher training;
 2. Four years required in a college as a prerequisite for high school teacher training;
- and

3. Professional work required in the science of teaching, i.e., psychology with principles and methods, methodology, school economy, and history of education, and art of teaching, i.e., observation of good teaching and practice teaching (Elsbree, 1963; Hockett & Bond, 1953; "Report of the Committee," 1899).

An expansion of the curriculum offerings was necessitated by the development of specialized types of teaching positions in the public schools. Different types of instructional, extension, and research services multiplied. All demanded professional preparation.

A few educators, including James E. Russell, Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, argued for professional training. As a supplement to acquiring general knowledge and specific subject matter learning, professional preparation was essential (Cremin, 1953a; Elsbree, 1963; Hockett & Bond, 1953; Travers, P. D., 1969; Woodring, 1962b). With this emphasis on professionalism, the public was urged to view a teacher's calling as a serious life profession--one worthy of technical preparation and life long devotion ("Where Our Schools," 1900).

The salaries of teachers continued to increase as standards of living advanced ("The Inequalities of School," 1892; "The Wail of the Teacher," 1894; "Women's Work," 1893). In 1870, the average annual salary of all teachers was \$189; in 1890, \$252; in 1920, \$871; and in

1930, \$1,420 (Andrews, B. R., 1925; U. S. Office of Education, 1930, 1932).

The average length of time spent in a teaching career along with the right for tenure had increased steadily. As early as 1892, a pension plan for the retired Chicago teachers was advocated ("About the Incompetent," 1893; "School Teacher's Pensions," 1900; "Superannuated Public School," 1892). A bill for a teacher's pension fund in Chicago was introduced to the state legislature in 1895; contributions by the teachers to this fund were not to exceed 1 percent of their salaries. A female teacher was eligible to retire after 20 years of service; a male teacher, after 25 years of service. The amount of pension paid was to equal one-half of the salary received at the date of the retirement but it was not to exceed \$1,000 ("The School Teacher's," 1895).

Changes in the Number, Organization, Control, and Support of Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges

Progress was made in the provisions for the preparation of teachers during this period. The normal school continued its traditional function as espoused by the NEA Committee at the turn of the century:

The teaching of subjects that they in turn may be taught. . . .

The development of character that it in turn may be transfigured into character. . . .

A preparation for life that it in turn may prepare others to enter fully, readily, and righteously into their environment.
("Report of the Committee," 1899, p. 838)

Educators of the period encouraged the growth of the state normal schools for the following reasons:

1. The normal schools were needed as training institutions for the teaching professions.
2. The normal schools provided ample practice for the teacher trainee under the competent supervision of skilled professional teachers.
3. The normal schools were an integrated part of the free State school system.
4. The normal schools were undoubtedly the only institutions of higher learning that offered free and equal educational opportunities for all in accordance with the expressed American democratic principles. (Sunderman, 1945, p. 30)

During the second half of the period, the state normal schools began transforming themselves into teachers colleges or colleges of education (Ade, 1934; Elsbree, 1963; Frazier, 1935; Woodring, 1975). Several factors contributed to the change to college status.

In the western states, where liberal arts colleges were less abundant than in the East, the normal schools had in attendance many students who did not plan to teach but who were seeking postsecondary schooling at low cost. Such students wanted their schools to be real colleges; the state legislatures endorsed the idea that a state-supported school should offer the kinds of programs that the people wanted.

American institutions, like individual Americans, have always favored taking advantage of the opportunity for upward mobility. When that opportunity exists, both individuals and institutions become interested in status. The normal school, at its best, lacked status. The students and faculty were sensitive to this issue, and, therefore, were eager to change the normal schools into colleges.

As early as 1887, concern was expressed regarding weaknesses in the normal school. Possible weaknesses were listed in an issue of the Chicago Tribune:

1. The normal school was not taking its proper place in the process of continuing education.
2. Teachers in the normal schools were not being properly trained in pedagogy.
3. Too often, students were admitted who had not sufficient education even to enter a grammar school.
4. The courses were too short.
5. The purpose of the normal school was shifting from that of the education of a professional teacher. ("Educational Problems," 1887, pp. 1-2)

Throughout the period states steadily increased their control of the state normal schools and teachers colleges (Ade, 1934). Predominantly states concentrated that control in the state board of education (BOE). State boards of education typically supervised the professional preparation of the teacher and closely related activities (Street, 1932). A director of training was the dominant person in this supervision. According to Yeuell (1927), the interests of the director of training included certification of teachers, teacher preparation in higher institutions, extension work, teacher preparation in high schools, teachers' institutes, placement of teachers, reading circle work, administration and supervision of elementary and of high schools, and salary schedules.

Important in the process of educating the teacher and of monitoring the program of teacher preparation was the establishment of professional associations. The National Teachers' Association had been established in 1857 and became the NEA in 1870 (Cremin, 1953a; "Organization

Meeting," 1858). In 1902, the National Society of College Teachers of Education was formed as a meeting ground for professional educators (Cremin, 1953b; Frazier, 1935). In 1902, the North Central Council of State Normal School Presidents was established which became in turn, the National Council of State Normal School Presidents and Principals (Zook & Haggerty, 1936); the National Council of Teachers Colleges; and, in 1923, merged itself with the American Association of Teachers Colleges (AATC), an organization formed in 1913 (Bush, R. N. & Enemark, P., 1975; Cremin, 1953b; Knight, 1945). In 1925, the AATC became a department of the NEA (Cremin, 1953b; "History of the American," 1922, 1923).

Very little progress was made toward the development of standards for the teacher education institutions before 1900. At the first annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1896, President Richard Jesse declared that definite criteria were necessary in formulating an accrediting program for teacher education (Jesse, 1896). In 1906, pressure for the accrediting of teacher education programs in colleges had increased, and at the annual meeting that year, considerable attention was given to the matter (Carman, 1906). In 1908, the Association voted to undertake the work of inspecting and accrediting college and university teacher education programs; in 1909, the first standards for colleges were adopted (Clark, D. L. & Marker, G., 1975; Zook & Haggerty, 1936). Actual accrediting of institutions began in 1927 when the AATC was given power in accreditation (Bush, R. N. & Enemark, P., 1975; Frazier, 1935).

Increase in the operating budgets of the normal schools and teacher colleges occurred during the period. The total revenues of all teacher preparation, public and private, increased from \$5,236,856 in 1899-1900 to \$69,983,932 in 1929-1930 (U. S. Office of Education, 1901, 1931). The total value of buildings and grounds as reported by the state normal schools and teachers colleges increased from \$23,061,077 in 1899-1900 to \$157,346,001 in 1929-1930 (Frazier, 1935; U. S. Office of Education, 1901, 1931).

Lengthening and Differentiation of Curricula

Because of the development of the high school, there had been a significant increase in the length and breadth of the normal school curricula. Studies made by Gwinn (1907) showed the steady disappearance of one-, two-, three-year normal school courses of study beginning in 1895. Four-year courses of study beginning with elementary school graduation were quite common (Evenden, 1943). Most of the normal schools introduced four-year curricula and became teachers colleges, though still retaining short collegiate curricula of one-year, two-years, or three-years (Cremin, 1953a; Elsbree, 1963; Frazier, 1935; Woodring, 1962b).

The great majority of elementary teachers still entered teaching with less than four years of normal school work; thus, in 1930, of 140 teachers colleges reporting, 61 retained one-year curriculum; 121, two-year curricula; and 50, three-year curricula (Frazier, 1935). All of the 65 normal schools offered short curricula of varying lengths, i.e.,

one-, two-, and three-year curricula. About a dozen teachers colleges did not report short curricula in 1930 (U. S. Office of Education, 1931); short curricula were being rapidly eliminated as demands for teachers with four years of work increased and as work beyond four years was being introduced.

Differentiation of curricula accompanied the elevation, lengthening, and enrichment of the courses of study (Frazier, 1935). Specialization of elementary work in kindergarten, primary, intermediate, upper grade or junior high school, and rural school was occurring in Missouri in 1914 (Evenden, 1943; Learned & Bagley, 1917).

Graduate work appeared, still in early stages of growth, in the teachers colleges. Ten teachers colleges conferred the master's degree in 1931 upon 170 men and 237 women. In 1933, 16 teachers colleges reported offering graduate work (Frazier, 1935; Pierson, 1947).

Enrichment of Content; Development of New Courses

Throughout the entire period, educators endorsed the idea that the selection and organization of the instructional materials presented to the prospective teachers in the colleges should give recognition to the actual needs and capacities of the children in the classroom. The courses of study for the teachers had certain functions:

1. The students should learn of the nature of the mind as they observe its movement;
2. The students should learn what is best suited to different capacities;
3. The students should note what makes one of their efforts in giving instruction succeed, and another not; they should develop a spirit of inquiry;

4. They should embrace a preparation of the pupil for the social and political relations which he is destined to sustain in manhood. (Russell, W. E., 1940, p. 486)

The courses that had been available in teacher training institutions prior to this period were changed in content and terminology. The content was enriched by scientific study of educational problems and by experimentation. The language of the curricula--select objectives, organize learning experiences, evaluate outcomes--suggested efficiency, which mirrored the industrial conception of man and his schooling (Joyce, 1975). Because of the industrial growth in the country, education became a matter of scientific techniques and skills (Cremin, 1953b; Hockett & Bond, 1953; "The Training of Teachers," 1874). Procedures were developed to integrate educational philosophy and theory with the actual happenings and practices in the schools.

The acceptance of the field of teaching as a profession implied that there was a unique body of knowledge and skill essential to its effective practice. Accordingly, educators of the period thought that the content of the professional courses should be expanded (Cremin, 1953a; Knight, 1945; Sunderman, 1945; Woodring, 1952b).

The most common professional subjects found by Judd and Parker (1916) in 13 selected state normal schools in the order of frequency were

practice of teaching or observation, history of education, psychology, school management, child study, principles of teaching, educational psychology, and general method. (p. 17)

The preceding attempt to categorize courses masked the wide variety of courses offered within each category. In 1933, the offerings were even more difficult to classify, but some indication of the changes may be given. Educational psychology was the most frequently taught among the professional courses; it was redefined as the science of behavior. This behavioristic revolution in educational training was led by John B. Watson (Woodring, 1975). A closely related course was child study which focused on the student as an individual; education had to begin on terms understandable to the student (Hockett & Bond, 1953; Joyce, 1975; Woodring, 1975). Content in the course, history of education, had changed considerably--understanding the place of the school in the social order, and the process and nature of learning were emphasized (Harap, 1967; Woodring, 1963). Observation and student teaching were universally offered; conducted under expert supervision shared by a representative of the college and of the public school (Clark, D. L. & Marker, G., 1975; Woodring, 1962b).

Observation, Student Teaching, and the Training School

Building facilities for training institutions greatly improved during the period. Classroom features that would lend themselves more effectively to the purposes for which the training school buildings had been constructed were provided (Altstetter, 1930; "The Peabody Education," 1896; "Southern Education," 1879). In addition to improved public school classrooms, these facilities provided the setting for practice teaching.

In 1899-1900, the average number of students preparing to become teachers enrolled in the campus and off-campus schools was 116 per school (U. S. Office of Education, 1901). In 1909-1910, the average was 251 per normal school or teachers college, and in 1929-1930, 274 (U. S. Office of Education, 1911, 1931). The growth over 20 years had not been great.

Ruediger (1907), in a study of the 1895 and 1905 catalogs of 38 normal schools, found that the average number of weeks devoted to student teaching increased from 27.5 to 30.2; from 1905 to 1915, the median number of hours devoted to practice work in 23 institutions increased from 160.5 to 180.3. In 1933, the standards of the AATC required a minimum of 90 clock-hours in student teaching. The median number of clock-hours of student teaching in teachers colleges in 1930-1931 reported to the U. S. Office of Education was 135 in four-year curricula and 111 in two-year curricula; the median amount reported in the state normal schools was 180 hours (U. S. Office of Education, 1931).

Changing Theories and Methodology

Throughout the period the emphases were on educational theory and methodology. Educators supported the use of the scientific study of education in an effort to improve teaching and to protect the schools from inefficiency (Frazier, 1935; Knight, 1945).

Early in the period a new conception of the place of habit and drill in instruction was provided through the psychology of William

James (Frazier, 1935; Joyce, 1975; Russell, W. E., 1940). James showed how psychological principles could be applied to the teaching-learning process, i.e., acquiring the ability of psychological observation and interpretation in guiding the child's learning experience (Woodring, 1975). He emphasized the resilience of the mind and warned against imprisoning intellectual creativity within mechanistic systems (Blum, Catton, Morgan, Schlesinger, Stamp, & Woodward, 1968). Along with John Dewey, James encouraged attempts to understand what was going on in the minds of students (Dewey, 1962; Hockett & Bond, 1953; Joyce, 1975; Knight, 1945). The teacher was to lead the children to identify and solve problems for themselves (Woodring, 1975). Dewey encouraged adapting schools to the children and using schools to improve lives. He was concerned with the revitalization of democracy and with the reconstruction of society on terms that would enable improvement (Joyce, 1975; Russell, W. E., 1940; Woodring, 1975). Both Dewey and Edward Thorndike emphasized learning and the importance of recognizing individual differences (Clifford, 1978; Knight, 1945; Russell, W. E., 1940; Woodring, 1975).

The seeds for major changes in educational thoughts were being planted in this period. The germination and growth of these seeds led to the reform movements described in the next section, 1933-1938.

Staff and Students

The average size of the staff of the teacher preparation institutions doubled between 1910 and 1930 (Frazier, 1935; U. S. Office

of Education, 1911, 1931). In 1930, the average number of faculty members in all types of teachers colleges and normal schools was 44 (U. S. Office of Education, 1931).

The academic and professional preparation of the faculty had increased. At no place in our educational structure should greater care be exercised than in the selection of teachers of teachers; it was and is a necessity for those who teach teachers to be men and women of the best minds with broad and generous education and scholarly habits (Knight, 1945). If the training institutions are to play their expected part in the advancement of learning, in the maintenance of superior standards of intellectual integrity, and in strengthening the desire for excellence among prospective teachers and teachers in service then top-notch, effective educators at the training institutions are essential.

With the steady up-grading in the standards required for membership in the AATC, improvements in the educational qualifications of the staffs of the teacher training institutions were encouraged (Knight, 1945). Ruediger (1907) found that while the levels of preparation of the staff had risen during the decade of 1895-1905, more than half of the staff in 1905 did not have degrees of any kind; this helped to explain the objection at the time to the transformation of normal schools into teachers colleges. Judd and Parker (1916) reported that an average of 7 percent of faculty members in 32 normal schools had the doctor's degree, and 31 percent had the master's degree. In contrast, in 63 colleges and universities, they found that an average of 34 percent had the doctor's degree, and 67 percent had the master's degree.

Salaries of staff members in normal schools increased materially between 1915 and 1931 (Frazier, 1935). On the average, president's salaries increased from \$3,578 in 1915-1916 to \$6,000 in 1930-1931; professors, from \$1,938 to \$3,000 for nine months' work; and supervising teachers, from \$1,075 to \$1,990 for nine months' work (U. S. Office of Education, 1921, 1931).

Between 1890 and 1933, there was a sevenfold to eightfold increase in the enrollment in all teacher preparation institutions. Shifts in the numbers enrolled in normal schools was great as the normal schools were transformed into teachers colleges. By 1933, four-fifths of all teacher education students were enrolled in the teachers colleges. The majority of teachers college students still began to teach at the conclusion of one-, two-, or three-year curricula.

Changing Status of Special-Type Teacher Preparation Institutions

City normal schools decreased steadily during the period. Chief causes for this decline included the growth of state and private teacher preparation institutions, lack of city school funds, decline in number of local teachers needed, and objections to local staff inbreeding (Frazier, 1935). The number of private and denominational normal schools decreased as the state institutions became established.

The preparation of teachers as a subordinate function of the academies, and later of the high schools, declined with the development of institutions responsible for teacher education. High school training classes disappeared as the education of teachers became a function of the collegiate institutions.

Although unnecessary and discriminatory differences in the preparation and experience of teachers in black schools were found among various regions of the country and among states and among school systems within the same states (Evenden, 1943), private philanthropic organizations aided advancements in progress in black education. The number of black students reported to the U. S. Commissioner of Education in normal schools and teachers colleges for blacks in 1895-1896 was 3,793; in 1929-1930, 16,577 (U. S. Office of Education, 1897, 1931).

Growth of Teacher Preparation in Colleges and Universities

In 1779, the first university chair of pedagogy was established at the University of Halle (Woodring 1975). The University of Halle was founded in 1694 by Frederick III of Brandenburg (later Frederick I of Prussia). Halle, the city home of the university, remains an important European trade center and lies on the Saale River in East Germany ("German," 1984; "Halle," 1984).

In 1806, Johann Herbart was called to the chair of philosophy and pedagogy at Konigsberg. Konigsberg, one of the most important shipping centers of Europe, was the capital of East Russia; after World War II, it became known as Kaliningrad ("Kaliningrad," 1984; "Russia," 1984). Herbart held that position for nearly a quarter of a century (Boyd, 1965).

In the United States, several universities offered professional courses for teachers during the 1840s and 1850s, but only on an occasional basis and without the formal establishment of special chairs

of pedagogy (Elsbree, 1963; Woodring, 1975). Horace Mann was offering instruction in pedagogy at Antioch College in 1852 (Messerli, 1963; Woodring, 1975).

When the State University of Iowa created a chair of didactics in 1873, it was careful to explain in its catalog:

Didactics, in the higher sense, is a liberal study. It includes the philosophy of mind, the laws of mental development, and all those branches of study and methods of instruction that are employed in general education. (Stabler, 1962, p. 37)

Between 1880 and 1890, nearly all the state universities created professorships of education or pedagogy (Cremin 1953a; Evenden, 1943; Woodring, 1962b, 1975). Many of these were within departments that combined education with psychology and philosophy.

In 1889-1890, 114 colleges and universities from a total of 415 reported to the U. S. Commissioner of Education that they had students enrolled in courses primarily for teachers. Nearly 8 percent of the total enrollment of the 415 institutions were reported to be studying in the teachers' courses, or in normal and pedagogical departments (Frazier, 1935).

Between 1900-1930, exact data were never compiled concerning the total number of colleges and university students preparing to teach. However, Meyer (1928) found in 155 small liberal arts colleges the following large increases in percentages of graduates who engaged in teaching: 1900-1904, 18 percent; 1905-1909, 19 percent; 1910-1914, 21 percent; 1915-1919, 24 percent; 1920-1924, 36 percent; and 1925-1929, 45 percent. A committee headed by Withers (1929) gave the figure of

45 percent as the proportion of college arts and science graduates in 199 liberal arts colleges in 38 states and the District of Columbia that entered teaching between 1923-1933.

In 1895-1896, the ratio of men students to women students who were preparing to teach was approximately 1:1.2; in 1909-1910, 1:1.7; and in 1929-1930, nearly 1:3 (Frazier, 1935). Women teacher education students increased markedly.

Teacher preparation was being assumed increasingly by state institutions. In 1899-1900, the ratio of prospective teachers in publicly supported colleges, not teachers colleges, to those in private institutions was about 1 to 3.7; in 1930, 1 to 1.5 (U. S. Office of Education, 1901, 1931).

Graduate work in education in universities was introduced at the University of the City of New York (New York University) in 1890, when the School of Pedagogy was established to give higher training to persons who may have devoted themselves to teaching as their calling (Catalog and Announcements, 1891).

Teachers College, Columbia University, played a special role in providing graduate studies for teachers. Chartered in 1887 as The New York College for the Training of Teachers, it changed its name to Teachers College in 1892, and in 1898, became associated with Columbia University (Circular of Information, 1888; Cremin, 1953a; Woodring, 1962b, 1975). Teachers College provided the means of instruction in, and the preparation of teachers for, work in manual training, domestic economy, and industrial arts; it provided the establishment of the study

of education as a professional subject (Hervey, 1900). An indication of the influence of Teachers College in teacher preparation is noted in the fact that by 1930 it was estimated that one-fifth of the staff members in normal schools and teachers colleges throughout the United States had had a part of their preparation in Teachers College (Russell, W. F., 1931).

One of the greatest contributions of graduate work in the higher institutions was a development of new knowledge through research and systematic study. The increase of the number of doctors' theses in the field of teacher preparation and the increase in the professional status of teachers since 1917 were a direct outgrowth of the increased knowledge base. In 1917, one doctor's thesis was reported in education; in 1922, eight; and in 1929, 20 (Frazier, 1935).

At first, departments of education were adjunct to the older subject matter departments. Their staffs came from former teachers in regular college departments or from the ranks of former public school officials who had achieved a professional reputation (Frazier, 1935; Knight, 1945). The size of the departments of education and their influence in the colleges and universities continued to increase.

Frazier (1935) offered the following reasons for the growth of departments and schools of education:

1. The demand for better prepared high-school teachers in greater numbers;
2. The phenomenal development of instructional material in professional education;
3. Rising state certification requirements;
4. Extension of the activities of the departments into research, extension, and other fields;

5. Increased material resources of the institutions;
6. Local leadership; and
7. Demands of students and public-school authorities. (p. 74)

During the latter part of this time period, liberal arts colleges were recognized as important training institutions for the preparation of teachers (Evenden, 1943; Woodring, 1962b, 1975). Evenden (1943) summarized the results of a study conducted in 1928-1933 that concentrated on the involvement of liberal arts colleges in teacher preparation. He found that nearly 50 percent of the teachers employed each year by the schools came from liberal arts colleges and the undergraduate division of universities. Furthermore, this half included one-third of the elementary teachers, seven-tenths of the junior high school teachers, and four-fifths of the senior high school teachers.

College departments of pedagogy before 1890 offered little or no student teaching although mention of observation was sometimes made in the catalogs. In 1893-1894, Frank McMurry established a primary model school with two grades at the University of Illinois (Catalog, 1894); the work was soon discontinued. In 1908-1909, W. C. Bagley put into effect a more thorough and adequate practice teaching program (Morehouse, 1912). In the meantime, student teaching had been introduced into a number of other colleges and universities. In 1908, of 50 selected universities, 30 offered practice teaching, and in 14, it was optional (Farrington, Strayer, & Jacobs, 1909).

The first recognized internship in teacher education at colleges and universities was established at Brown University in Rhode Island in 1909 (Gardner, 1968). It was modeled after the internship program

developed at Fitchburg Normal school in Massachusetts in 1904, which extended the two-year normal course to four years. During their third year, selected students were used as regular elementary teachers in cooperating schools; these students received a salary and were under the control and supervision of a normal school staff (Spaulding, 1955).

Within the program at Brown University, some of the graduates in teacher education were placed in the Providence Public Schools for one full year as half-time, salaried teachers under close supervision of a professor of education and a supervising teacher. They were also required to complete a specified amount of course work at that university during their internship (Brown, J. F., 1911).

The internship program was designed to achieve five goals established by the National Society of College Teachers of Education:

1. Serve as a professional laboratory facility for observation and participation by prospective teachers;
2. Conduct research and experimentation in child growth and development and in the use of instructional materials and teaching procedures;
3. Test and demonstrate forward-looking school practices;
4. Enrich the program of graduate studies in education; and
5. Exercise leadership in in-service education programs for teachers. (Jacobs, 1909, p. 533)

These goals emerged from a developing philosophy of teacher education that expressed a necessity for providing the teacher candidate with an opportunity to test educational theory through practice in the classroom (Dewey, 1962; Gardner, 1968; Stabler, 1960).

In an effort to provide the potential teacher with additional professional clinical experiences, the University of Cincinnati

established an internship program in 1919 (Gardner, 1968). All of the participants were required to complete a four-year program, including education courses and a B.S. or B.A. in education degree. Only students with a high scholastic record were admitted to the program. They were assigned to classrooms in the public school as half-time, salaried teachers. They remained as university students and continued their classwork. Limitations of the Cincinnati program included the following:

1. The fifth-year student must carry a very heavy academic program;
2. It was almost impossible for most school systems to provide the necessary close and careful supervision; and
3. Any appreciable expansion of the program was almost impossible without large funds, the involvement of many cooperating schools, and a large group of highly competent supervisors. (Hall-Quest, 1924, pp. 129-141)

The Cincinnati program operated throughout 1940.

By the beginning of 1930, other internship programs were established in Boston, Cleveland, Minneapolis, Seattle, Buffalo, and Gary. Although they varied greatly in response to local conditions, all were characterized by the provision of increased supervision for beginning teachers during their first year of employment (Jones, H. R., Cress, C., & Carley, V. A., 1941; Spaulding, 1955). All of the programs prescribed to the growing belief that theory is truly meaningful only through practice in real situations (Dewey, 1962). By the late twenties, internships were considered a vital part of the preparation for all of the professions; however, it was often not feasible to establish internships at the teacher education institutions which required an additional year of preservice education (Richardson, 1923).

Land-Grant Colleges; Vocational Education

The Morrill Act of 1862 offered states a land-grant to endow colleges of agriculture and the mechanical arts (Blum et al., 1968; DeVane, 1965; Hofstadter & Hardy, 1952; Thackrey, 1971). Among the three major types of services developed in the land-grant institutions--instruction, extension, and experimental station work--the preparation of students for vocational teaching had its beginnings. In 1929, the George-Reed bill greatly increased the annual appropriations for the purpose of preparing teachers of agriculture and home economics.

Emphasis upon a practical and vital type of work characterized vocational teacher preparation in the land-grant colleges. Thorough knowledge of the technical field studied was stressed along with the usual required courses in professional education. Considerable emphasis was placed upon supervised student teaching adapted to the needs of the several vocational fields ("Teacher Training," 1930). The number of vocational teacher training institutions increased from 94 in 1918, to 178 in 1932 (Federal Board for Vocational Education, 1932; U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1930).

Municipal Colleges and Universities

Eleven municipally supported colleges and universities included Charleston, founded in 1837; Louisville, 1846; New York, including City College, 1849, Hunter College, 1870, and Brooklyn, 1930; Cincinnati, 1873; Toledo, 1884; Akron, 1913; Detroit, 1915; Wichita, 1926; and Omaha, 1931 (Eckelberry, 1932). Nearly all prepared teachers, and they

entered extensively into the in service education of workers in nearby city schools. Graduate work in education was offered in the majority of the municipal universities.

Colleges for Women

Following the establishment of separate colleges for women during the middle decades of the nineteenth century, coordinate colleges for women, conducted with men's colleges in the same institution, were also established. Of the independent women's colleges, there were in 1933-1934, eight state, one city, 29 private, and 90 denominational colleges (Frazier, 1935). Such institutions persisted despite the growth in enrollments of women in coeducational institutions. Some of the larger private colleges for women ranked high, especially in the East, among the endowed and well-equipped institutions of the country. In the South, a majority of the graduates of a number of the state women's colleges entered teaching (Churgin, 1978; Deem, 1978; Goodsell, 1931; Park, R., 1978).

Junior Colleges

The junior colleges of the time provided preprofessional preparation for students who later finished their work in teachers colleges or in colleges and universities. In 1900, there were 27 private junior colleges; in 1915, 15 public and 74 private institutions; and in 1930, 162 public and 268 private institutions (Eells, 1931). The total in 1933 was 514 junior colleges, with enrollments of 103,530 (Campbell, 1934).

Like the state normal schools and teachers colleges, the junior colleges appeared to grow in numbers in times of war and economic depression (Frazier, 1935). California, Texas, and Iowa led in the number of junior colleges established.

In summary. Around 1900, the greatest growth in the history of the United States occurred in general education and in the professional education of teachers. Throughout the period, states began to assume more direct control over teacher preparation institutions and over the administration of teacher certification requirements. Educational associations focused their influence on raising professional standards among teachers. The state normal schools began transforming themselves into teachers colleges and colleges of education. Lengthening and differentiation of curricula occurred in teacher preparation institutions.

Low Years of the Depression and the Early Years of the War-Born Recovery, 1933-1938

This was a period in which there were many obvious maladjustments--socially, economically, politically, and in world affairs. Many thoughtful citizens and educational leaders of the time were worried because social and technological changes seemed hard to make and results were slowly realized. Whenever these maladjustments were considered in their larger implications, the importance of education was recognized. This recognition, in turn, led to a concern for the quality of teachers and teacher education (Evenden, 1943).

Scientific Approach of the Educational Process

The education of the teacher was designed to fit the industrial conception of man. Education became an indispensable means of status maintenance and acquisition for most people; to acquire status or to maintain it, one had to procure an education. Teaching, in turn, served as a means of vertical mobility for persons entering the profession (Wayland, 1963). Accordingly, teachers were locked into the whole system. The teachers colleges and education departments occupied relatively low status positions in the academic world; located just a step above the bottom. However, these institutions looked good to persons who were moving upward (Joyce, 1975). By gathering these mobile people together in the teacher training institutions, the system could socialize them into the existing practices of the schools.

Most of the theories taught to the young teacher reflected the industrial values, i.e., "select objectives, organize learning experiences, and evaluate outcomes" (Joyce, 1975, p. 117). Industrial models of individualism were recommended, and efficiency-oriented methods were stressed (Wayland, 1963).

As the industrial technology stimulated growth of the country, education became a matter of scientific techniques and skills (Cremin, 1953b; Hockett & Bond, 1953; Joyce, 1975). The way research was presented to educators reflected of that stance.

For example, when one looks at presentations of research on reading instruction as these are prepared for the profession, one finds that they compare methods by criteria of efficiency in achievement of specific goals. The bulk of the scientific literature on education is as economic

in mode as is the dominant theory and practice of the field. (Joyce, 1975, p. 117)

Thus, the young teacher was socialized to the views of curriculum and research which were compatible with the mainstream and the normative practices of the schools.

Involved in the consideration of the relationship of industrialization to teacher training was the degree to which school systems gave attention to the immediate and different concerns of their clients. Visibility of reward for educational attainment, usability of the skills associated with education, and allowance for adaptations within the society provided reinforcement for acquiring training. Schooling and other social processes could not be separated (Hullfish, 1934).

Changing Methodology in Teacher Education

Early in the twentieth century, the attempts to reform teacher education challenged the traditional practices clearly reflected in the early industrial era. Changes in teacher education grew out of reforms in education. The most extensive of the reform movements was in some ways the most paradoxical (Cremin, 1961). It was a complex and often contradictory set of theories, points of view, attitudes, and practices that came to be known as "progressive education" (Blum et al., 1968, p. 546).

It is seen most powerfully in the writings of John Dewey and Dewey's interpreters in the Progressive movement itself (Dewey, 1916). Its paradox is in its mixture of radical and conservative thought

(Knight, 1945; Russell, W. E., 1940). It stood for social change and for changes in educational method and substance, all rooted in a nontraditional conception of man. It did utilize, however, many traditional educational procedures and structures.

Bode (1938), a professor at Ohio State University, an early leader in the movement, and later one of its thoughtful critics, contended that

While the movement has never been sharply defined, its most prominent connotations had been one of "child centeredness" in the sense that it has been guided largely by such concepts as "interest," "freedom," and "self-activity." In its psychology, progressive education has leaned toward the point of view indicated, somewhat vaguely, by the phrase "learning by doing." In its social philosophy, it has stressed the importance of superseding habits of competition with habits of cooperation. (p. 3)

The Progressive movement represented a blending of the child study movement (Cremin, 1953b) which began in the latter part of the nineteenth century (briefly described in the preceding section), with the translation of the work of the pragmatic philosophers into educational terms. From the child study movement, it focused upon students as individuals and recognized that education had to begin in terms understandable to them (Dewey, 1962; Joyce, 1975; Knight, 1945; Masters, 1933; Russell, W. E., 1940; Woodring, 1975). Students were accepted as emotional and intellectual beings in their own right. They were not simply economic entities or raw materials to be processed into the system of the Industrial Revolution (Joyce, 1975; Woodring, 1975).

Dewey's pragmatism contained the expression of the two major ideas from which the Progressive movement drew its strength. One was the

constructionist view of knowledge which saw knowledge as a product of thinking, an everchanging set of conceptions which had to be held tentatively because they would modify as new experience was acquired and was processed differently (Joyce, 1975; Russell, W. E., 1940). Dewey viewed man as seeking information in terms of his purposes, constantly changing his conceptions, having to become aware of his own frame of reference to understand this knowledge and then communicate it to others. By contrast, the industrial conception emphasized the stability of the external world and diminished the role of the individual.

The second basic idea of the Progressive movement stemmed from Dewey's concern with the revitalization of democracy (Borrowman, 1957; Sunderman, 1945) and with the reconstruction of society on terms that would enable its continued improvement (Dewey, 1962; Evenden, 1943; Joyce, 1975; Knight, 1945; Russell, W. E., 1940; Woodring, 1975). This view of society and of the role of the citizen in improving it was consistent with the stance of educators in the Progressive movement toward knowledge.

Changing Theories as a Base for Teacher Education

Educational philosophy became especially attuned to the Progressive movement, partly because its origins had been in the work of philosophers (Joyce, 1975). Books, as Philosophy of Education, by William Kilpatrick and other interpreters of Dewey became the standard texts in educational philosophy courses. According to Hullfish (1934), educators were to work for the conditions which would permit the

educative effects of their philosophical position to seep into the social order. Educators had an obligation to set forth and work for the conditions that would make all institutional life, including the schools, foster educative efforts consistent with the set of values which would give their points of view character; their educational philosophy would determine educational aims and ideals.

Twentieth-century educators have made a determined effort to base their pedagogical practices on the latest psychological theories. During the thirties, the science of behavior and the science of the mind were used to describe the range of a child's learning ability.

The behavioristic revolution had a profound impact on teacher education. In 1938, B. F. Skinner enlarged the field by distinguishing between respondent behavior which is elicited by particular stimuli and operant behavior which is emitted by the organisms without any specific identifiable stimulus to account for it (Bassett, 1978; Glaser, 1978; Woodring, 1975). This concept of operant conditioning offered a possible explanation for the varieties of classroom learning that could not adequately be explained by classical conditioning.

Psychoanalysis first had a substantial influence on American education in the 1930s. With education in the schools being held responsible for the child's social development, psychoanalytic interpretations of personality development and psychoanalytic explanation of maladjustments had wide appeal (Suppes & Warren, 1978; Woodring, 1975).

The Gestalt psychological principles were attractive to Progressive educators because they were against rote learning and in favor of insight as an educational goal. Their popularity declined as the educators recognized difficulties in developing effective institutional techniques based upon the concepts of insight and closure.

Implications for Teacher Education

Dewey's perception of knowledge as ever-changing and his view of education as an emergent group process represented a challenge of the traditional conceptions of knowledge and social process. It implied a type of teacher education which would be controversial. It encouraged the teacher to become more permissive and less authoritarian. The teacher was to accept responsibility for the social and personality development of children. The teacher had to be seen as a problem-solver who would continually invent methodology, reselecting substance and methods as the life of each classroom group created and recreated itself. The teacher adapted the curriculum to the interests of the children (Dewey, 1962; Joyce, 1975; Knight, 1945; Masters, 1933; Pittenger, 1938; Russell, W. E., 1940; Woodring, 1975).

The campus and laboratory schools became far more "progressive" than the public schools in which the students were preparing to teach (Dewey, 1962; King, 1937; Woodring, 1975). When the graduates moved into a public school teaching position, they often discovered that neither the children nor the principal was ready for the kinds of teaching and curricular changes they had been taught to believe were

desirable. Some tried to change the schools but most adapted themselves to the schools in which they taught and often complained that the instruction they had received in the training institutions was "too theoretical" or "unrealistic" (Fristoe, 1939; Woodring, 1975).

The Progressive movement achieved only limited modifications in the teacher training curriculum because it worked within the traditional schools and programs of teacher education. The methods courses were retained but were reshaped. Often democratic practices were instituted within the courses with the college professor playing a facilitative role to a group of problem-solving students. Some of these programs were run as problem-solving groups (Thelen, 1954).

Because of the influence of the Progressive movement, teacher education courses during the 1930s became less systematic, more oriented toward emergent methodologies of teaching, and less oriented toward the substance of the disciplines (Finkelstein, 1970/1971). Science methods began to place importance upon problem-solving with the materials gathered by the teacher and the children (Blough & Huggett, 1951); these served as resource units rather than structured curricula. The methods courses also began to emphasize field trips (Joyce, 1975).

Training from the Internship Experience

Included within the methods courses was the truism that skills are best learned through practice under supervision (Pittenger, 1938). To adequately serve the learning experience, it was vital to be in contact with children and to practice relating the learner to the learning

materials ("Notes on Teacher," 1938). This belief in "learning by doing" (Dewey, 1962; Gardner, 1968; Joyce, 1975; Woodring, 1975) continued throughout the 1930s. The Progressives recognized that a vital part of any educational program was provision of clinical experience to allow the fusion of theory into practice (Lynch, 1937; "Notes on Teacher," 1938).

Within the social context of economic scarcity, teacher surplus, and Progressive philosophy, several types of internships in teacher education existed during the 1930s. Although there was a variety of internship programs, most of them were established within the same philosophical framework and manifested similar characteristics, activities, and goals (Gardner, 1968).

H. R. Jones (1941) through a study of 21 programs found the following functions of internships:

1. To secure integration of theory and practice in the professional education of teachers;
2. To insure that the beginning teacher secures his first year's experience in a school situation conducive to professional growth;
3. To provide a scheme of teacher induction in which there is adequate and competent supervision at the time of induction;
4. To provide a program of professional preparation of teachers in which learning is based upon doing; and
5. To permit gradual induction into the work of teaching. (p. 20)

Through his study, H. R. Jones (1941) identified six principles which teacher educators believed ought to be characteristic of internships and which were operative in over 50 percent of the programs studied.

1. Internships should be considered part of the basic preparation and training of the beginning teacher;
2. During the period of internship, the intern should engage in the large variety of activities in which a regular teacher engages;
3. The internship plan should include a cooperating, teacher-training institution in which interns carry on correlated graduate work during their period of internship;
4. The period of internship should be at least a year in length;
5. Basic courses in professional education, including student teaching, should be completed prior to entrance into internship; and
6. The internship should be a good school situation approximating as closely as possible the type of school situation in which the intern will probably receive permanent appointment. (p. 21)

Each internship program was characterized by its own unique features, but it is possible to group them into four types of programs on the basis of the kind of sponsoring institution: (a) a public school system, (b) a city school system in cooperation with a municipal teacher education institution, (c) a university or college, or (d) an independent teacher education institution (Jones, H. R. et al., 1941).

In a description of representative programs sponsored by public school systems in Grosse Point, Michigan; Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; and Seattle, Washington; similarities and differences were in evidence. All required that the interns hold the bachelor's degree and a teaching certificate, provided for a gradual induction into teaching, paid the interns a regular salary based on the beginning teacher's salary in proportion to the amount of teacher load assumed, and sponsored a program for one full year (Gardner, 1968). Differences existed in method of supervision and type and quality of related instruction provided the intern.

Programs sponsored by a city school system in cooperation with a municipal teacher education institution were in operation in Chicago, Cincinnati, and Detroit. A major objective of these three internships was to recruit teachers from a highly selected group of college undergraduates (Gardner, 1968).

A third type of program, an internship sponsored by a college or university, was in evidence at eight institutions: Northwestern University; Stanford University; Brown University; New York University; Teachers College, Columbia University; the University of Illinois; the University of Pennsylvania; and Western Maryland College. Northwestern University led in the development of an internship that was judged as highly effective; most five-year internships were patterned after the Northwestern program (Gardner, 1968). The Northwestern internship was part of a graduate program leading to the master's degree which included a year of internship and two summer sessions, one preceding and the other following the internship period. Only superior students who had successfully completed student teaching and were found acceptable by local schools were admitted to the program. Provisions were made for a gradual induction into teaching; joint supervision was shared by the university and the cooperating school (Jones, H. R. et al., 1941).

Internship sponsored by private teacher education institutions--such as the Graduate Teachers College in Winnetka, the Cooperative School for Teachers in New York City, and the Shady Hill School, Cambridge, Massachusetts--were similar to those sponsored by universities (Gardner, 1968).

Raising Standards of Preservice Preparation of Teachers

During the early part of this period many school districts and several states were farsighted enough to take advantage of the surplus of teachers and the relative desirability of teaching positions to raise their standards for the preservice preparation of teachers. This was especially true for elementary teachers. Several states raised the preservice requirement for all new teachers to four years of post-secondary school work (Ade, 1934). Five states and a number of cities required five years of collegiate work as a preservice requirement for new high school teachers. These changes, however, did not occur frequently (Evenden, 1943).

Certification requirements tended to make the curricula of teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges similar. To meet the minimum certification requirements, the liberal arts colleges in several states adopted courses or course titles from the teachers colleges.

The trend to centralize the control of teacher certification in the state departments of education continued. Bachman (1933) contended that it was necessary for a single agency under state control to assume directive leadership in teacher preparation and certification to make certification requirements sound. He argued that certification requirements needed to become definite and complete, and thus, eliminate the widely divergent kinds of certificates which still existed.

Raising Professional Standards

A profession rests upon a substantial body of scholarly knowledge. The scholarly knowledge that makes teaching a profession comes from many fields. A student training to become an elementary teacher during the 1930s was required to take background subject matter courses appropriate to the level to be taught as well as courses dealing with improvement of instruction in various elementary school subjects. Likewise, a student training to become a high school teacher was required to enroll in a general orientation course in secondary education and in professional courses in his or her major and minor fields.

The common professional core of courses in teacher education included history of American education, psychology of learning, observation and applied techniques of teaching, student teaching, and philosophy of education (Ade, 1934; Masters, 1933; "Notes on Teacher," 1938; Pittenger, 1938; Rugg, 1936).

A by-product of the raising of standards for preservice preparation of teachers was an increase in the respect of the teaching profession in the mind of the public. Because teachers were by far the largest among the groups laying claim to professional status, it seemed necessary to have an extended period of preparation comparable to that required for admission to other professions along with the possession of the unique skills and knowledge of teaching (Borrowman, 1957; Elsbree, 1963; King, 1937).

D. F. Graham (1935) suggested the following guidelines in developing the highest type of professional consciousness in education:

1. The teacher should adopt a professional attitude toward the use of time;
2. The teacher should insist upon adult observation of his work;
3. The teacher should welcome measurement of his work; and
4. The teacher should imitate a love of craftsmanship apparent among true professionals in any field.
(p. 392)

In the thirties, the public was awakened to the realization that teachers were "well educated persons, professionally prepared for their work, and could be expected to make constructive contributions to the various community programs" (Evenden, 1943, p. 341). This recognition encouraged more people to believe that the work of the schools and of the teachers in those schools was of great importance to a democracy.

In summary. In world affairs, throughout this period, social, economic, and political maladjustments were in evidence. Although stemming from different philosophical positions, the scientific movement and the Progressive education movement both had some influence on teacher education. Teacher education was designed to fit a scientific approach--industrial values in terms of objectives, outcomes, and learning experiences. Efficiency-oriented methods were emphasized. The Progressive education movement stressed the individuality of each learner, the concept of "learning by doing," and the continuing improvement of a democratic society. Belief in putting theory into practice, encouraged the development of internships in teacher education.

Years of Continuing Recovery from the Depression
and Beginnings of World War II, 1938-1943

When Franklin D. Roosevelt was inaugurated as President of the United States in March 1933, the American democracy was profoundly absorbed in gloomy internal problems. The beginning of his administration began in a season of despair unique in American history. The ever deepening depression, the lengthening bread lines in the cities, the angry mobs of farmers in the countryside, the apparent immobility of the national government, and the spreading misery and resentment--all combined to stamp society with an unprecedented sense of bewilderment and defeat (Blum et al., 1968). These happenings compelled American society to change during the period.

Demographically the population of the United States grew at a rate less than a million a year; the total population of 131.7 million in 1940 was hardly more than twice that of the preceding decade. In 1938, there were 1.6 million fewer children under the age of ten than there had been five years before. With the increase in life expectancy from 56 in 1920 to 64 in 1940, the proportion of people over 55 increased from 5.4 percent in 1930 to 6.9 percent in 1940, America began to look like an aging country. Its population growth was slowing to a stop; its future growth appeared limited (Blum et al., 1968; Kirkendall, 1942; Schermerhorn, 1943).

The number of students enrolled in the secondary schools approximately doubled in each decade from 1900-1940. The percentage of persons of high school age enrolled in the secondary schools increased from 10.3 percent in 1900 to 67.0 percent in 1938. The number of

students enrolled in college at the same time increased five times (Brown, C. H., 1943; U. S. Office of Education, 1941), although those enrolled in teacher education dropped 22 percent from 1940-1942 (Schermerhorn, 1943).

Cooperation among Schooling Agencies in Furthering Programs Already Started

In the late thirties, the matter of educating the teachers came to the forefront as one of the vital issues in the field of education. One of the serious and influential moves to be made in recognizing teacher education as a problem during these years was the creation of the Commission on Teacher Education by the American Council on Education (Carter, 1941; Cremin, 1953b; Evenden, 1943; Lafferty, 1939a, 1940). This Commission, under the leadership of Karl W. Bigelow and working with 34 cooperating colleges and school systems, held a general meeting at Bennington, Vermont, in August 1939 (Bennington Planning Conference, 1939; Carter, 1941; Lafferty, 1940). The meeting was held for the express purpose of defining the scope and function of the group. The functions were listed as follows:

1. To offer consultant services to participating schools;
2. To serve as a clearinghouse for the distribution of materials, bibliographies, etc., relating to the study of teacher education;
3. To better husband the relationships of the school, the teacher, and the public through an active public relations program;
4. To serve as a means of interpretation and stimulation to members of cooperating groups;
5. To sponsor studies and investigations in teacher education by members of the Commission;

6. To provide fellowships for workers whose efforts, interests, and abilities in the field of teacher education suggest promises;
7. To hold conferences on pertinent aspects of the general problem;
8. To establish workshops and centers of collaboration;
9. To give some direct financial aid to cooperating institutions; and
10. To cooperate with other agencies and organizations interested in the problem of teacher education. (Lafferty, 1940, p. 586)

With these services enumerated, there was reason to believe that through cooperation improvement in teacher preparation could become a continuous process.

Problems facing teacher education during this period were addressed in two separate studies (Harper, 1939; Wood, 1942). They both found that concerted efforts were being made to improve the selection and admission of prospective teachers to the profession and to the planning of their professional and non-professional programs (Ade, 1934; Kopel, 1939; Lafferty, 1940; "Notes on Teacher," 1938). Courses were offered that would acquaint students with the characteristics of the teaching profession so that they could decide more intelligently whether they had made a wise career choice; they could also discover their aptitudes for teaching and probable success (Anderson, J. T., 1938; Rhodes, 1938).

There was a gradual increase occurring in the amount or the number of years of preparation for the teaching profession (Ade, 1934; Kopel, 1939). The requirements for certification were continuing to advance (Cremin, 1953b; Lafferty, 1940; Northway, 1941). It was generally recognized, however, that unless the quality as well as the quantity of professional preparation was increased, little improvement would be noted (Douglass & Mills, 1943; Fristoe, 1939).

There was a demand for a broader education of the teacher as a person with emphasis on an understanding of the social-economic-political world, appreciation of aesthetic and recreational activities, development of personality, and the maintenance of physical and mental health (Douglass & Mills, 1943; Kopel, 1939; Lafferty, 1940; Orr, M. L. & Anderson, A. C., 1938; Schussman, 1939). Requiring a broader education encouraged the teacher to assume a greater importance in the social and civic environment surrounding the school (Borrowman, 1957; Kirkendall, 1942; Masters, 1933; Northway, 1941; Schussman, 1939).

An attempt was being made to increase the functionalism of courses and methods (Dewey, 1938; Masters, 1933; Orr, M. L. & Anderson, A. C., 1938). This was done by combining subject matter and methods (Dewey, 1938; Rhodes, 1938); fusing special methods, curriculum organization, and practice teaching (Lafferty, 1940; "Notes on Teacher," 1938); or by offering a general course of study during the first two years of college and devoting the remaining two or three years to specialized subject matter and professional courses (Beu, 1942; Borrowman, 1957; Kopel, 1939; Lafferty, 1940).

The preparation of secondary school teachers was being generalized and extended to include two or more fields (Bagley, 1942; Lafferty, 1939a). This type of preparation facilitated better placement of the teacher and contributed to broadening his or her view of the total educational program (Beu, 1942; Douglass & Mills, 1943; Lawson, 1942).

The period of supervised teaching was being lengthened (Douglass & Mills, 1943; Fristoe, 1939; Kopel, 1939; Lafferty, 1940; "Notes on

Teacher," 1938). Several studies (Borrowman, 1957; Cahoon, 1930; Camp, 1944; Dewey, 1962; Mills, 1943) indicated that student teachers believed that supervised teaching was the most valuable of all their professional courses. Despite the efforts of leading educators and the apparent effectiveness of the internship developed in the early 1930s, from 1938-1948 there was little interest in establishing internships in teacher education (Bishop, 1948a).

There was an attempt to professionalize the degrees offered in education and to adapt them to increasing requirements of certification (Kyte, 1939; Lafferty, 1940). This trend also encouraged teacher training to be more functional (Douglass & Mills, 1943; Fristoe, 1939). The required hours of credit in professional courses were greater, and students were asked to make their majors and minors more general (Lafferty, 1940; Schussman, 1939).

A constant effort was being made to professionalize teaching to a greater degree (Douglass & Mills, 1943; Lafferty, 1940). The increasing standards, the improvement of admission procedures, and the development and improvement of teachers' associations contributed to this trend (Ade, 1934; Lafferty, 1939a, 1940; Northway, 1941).

Trends do not necessarily point the proper direction for change, nor do they always imply that change is necessary. They may serve, however, as a basis for organized thought on the problems which may initiate movement. Possible approaches are suggested as solutions to these problems; both the problems and the approaches are summarized from Wood (1942, pp. 99-102) and Lafferty (1940, pp. 587-593).

PROBLEMS

(1) The quality of the students attracted to the teaching profession is not comparable to that in other professions and the lack of adequate barriers to the professional curriculum of teacher education leads to serious handicaps in their preparation for teaching.

(2) The non-professional or subject-matter preparation of teachers is frequently too specialized, too superficial, too impractical to the needs of the teacher in modern elementary and secondary schools.

(3) The professional courses frequently have little carry-over into the teaching situation; teachers report that they have been too theoretical to be of value.

(4) Little emphasis given to practice-teaching.

(5) No nationally agreed upon program. Certification available end of first, second, third and fourth year of preparation.

POSSIBLE APPROACHES

Increase rigidity in selection of candidates. Admission based upon a composite of scores taken from scholarship in previous schooling, standardized mental and achievement tests, personality ratings, etc. Conditional admission. Student subject to dismissal whenever he indicates lack of interest in teaching, lack of ability to teach, or lack of other demonstrable strengths conducive to teaching success. Elimination usually occurs at completion of sophomore work and again at the end of the junior year.

Expand the training in the student's two or three chosen teaching areas to conform in organization with the subjects or grades he will be teaching, but at the same time enforce rigid standards of scholarship.

Orient all professional courses in actual teaching situations. Reorganize these courses to eliminate duplication, and extend the amount of time devoted to professional preparation. Provide liaison professors in the schools and colleges of education who will coordinate professional and subject-matter courses.

Emphasize practice-teaching in laboratory and public schools.

Four year program leading to a B.S. in Education. Five year program leading to the M.A. or M.Ed. degree.

(6) Certifying authority in hands of local administrative control.

Centralize of certifying authority in hands of State Board of Education.

(7) Discourage the employment of other than local teacher.

Encourage the interstate migration of competent teachers.

(8) Teaching certificates issued on basis of oral or written examinations.

Issue teaching certificates on basis of institutional credentials.

(9) Issuance of "blanket" or other unspecialized certificates.

Issue certificates specifically for academic subjects, non-academic or special subjects, or administrative and supervisory positions.

(10) Issuance of permanent teaching certificates.

Issue temporary certificates. Renewable only by continued attendance in school or by evidenced successful teaching or both.

(11) There is a lack of coordination of purpose, objectives, and principles in teacher education among the professional and non-professional departments of many colleges, and between the colleges and the public school people.

Establish a committee on teacher education to set up principles and policies, determine goals and objectives, and work with the public schools in developing and advancing the teaching profession.

For improvement to result from the application of these proposed solutions to problems in teacher education, cooperation from all those concerned with teacher training must occur. This cooperative effort would need to involve all of these groups: the state, including members of the state departments of education; the faculty members of the various departments representing teaching areas of schools of education and of teachers colleges; the specific school systems, including coordinating teachers and administrators; the persons in the local communities, including parents and leaders; and each individual teacher (Evenden, 1943; Fristoe, 1939; Lafferty, 1940; Northway, 1941; Wood, 1942).

Besides the coordination of all program areas affecting teacher preparation and the cooperation of all agencies involved in teacher education, every aspect included should be subject to constant evaluation, criticism, and revision (Fristoe, 1939; Lafferty, 1940; Northway, 1941; Wood, 1942). The study of any area of the program should not cease with the adoption of some change. Constructive criticism should always be welcomed as a step toward the continued development and improvement of teacher preparation.

Reciprocal Effects of Education and War

As it became evident that America's nonaggressive attitude would not stem the drift toward involvement, President Roosevelt wanted to awaken the nation to the dangers of a world war. In a fireside chat on the evening of September 3, 1939, Roosevelt told Americans that when peace had been broken anywhere, the peace of all countries everywhere was in danger; he reaffirmed his determination "to use every effort" to keep war out of America (Blum et al., 1968, p. 719).

The attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, caused a tremendous surge of national unity behind the government. At the outbreak of war, the American economy was in semimobilization. Through 1941, business resisted pressure to convert industrial facilities to war production; by the time of the Pearl Harbor disaster, 15 percent of industrial output was going for military purposes.

Like any period of war, this was a period of upheaval. People were uprooted from familiar settings and thrust into new places and new

responsibilities. The new social fluidity created both opportunity and anxiety.

During this time, it was necessary to maintain an efficient educational system (Carpenter & Capps, 1943; Rowland, 1945). The need for effective educational service in the current emergency was pointed out by President Roosevelt.

The message I would emphasize to you this year is that America will always need men and women with college training. Government and industry alike need skilled technicians today. Later, we shall need men and women of broad understanding and special aptitudes to serve as leaders of the generation which must manage the postwar world. We must, therefore, redouble our efforts during these critical times to make our schools render even more efficient service in support of our cherished democratic institutions. (Beu, 1942, p. 582)

Besides the problems of declining birth rates, smaller school enrollments, and lessening of the demand for teachers (Blum et al., 1958; Brown, C. H., 1943; Kirkendall, 1942), education faced the additional problems created by the war. Schools had been established and maintained in order that the human defense of this nation would remain strong (Carpenter & Capps, 1943; Weeks, 1941). Armies, tanks, ships, and airplanes were necessary but they must be buttressed with a united, loyal, and courageous people (Pullen, 1942; Weeks, 1941). The ability of the country to defend itself rested on the solidarity of the homes, the health of the citizenry, the integrity of the government, and the unity of the purposes of the people (Bagley, 1942).

The immediate educational problems caused by the war were centered in the secondary schools and in the colleges (Bagley, 1942). Wartime pressure upon industry made it necessary to teach vocational skills.

To prepare teachers for this rapidly changing, confused world, demanded more thorough, and more technical education (Beu, 1942). Many new courses designed specifically to meet defense needs and to provide the necessary training as required by war agencies were added to the teachers' preparation curricula (Bagley, 1942; Beu, 1942; Douglass & Mills, 1943; Pullen, 1942; Weeks, 1941).

It was recognized that the work and responsibility of the teachers were just as important as winning the war (Beu, 1942; Carpenter & Capps, 1943; Rowland, 1945). Members of boards of education pointed out that while they determined school policies, only the trained teacher was qualified to enter the classroom and to teach. Educators maintained through these years that the teacher's contributions to the total defense of America by educating the young would prove to be just as great as was the contribution of the one who directly entered war work (Bagley, 1942; Beu, 1942; Carpenter & Capps, 1943; Douglass & Mills, 1943; Kirkendall, 1942; Rowland, 1945; Weeks, 1941).

In summary. Gloomy internal problems--depression, bread lines, immobility of the federal government--were in evidence in the United States. These happenings, along with our involvement in World War II, compelled societal and educational changes. The preparation of teachers came to be a leading educational issue. Cooperation of all agencies involved in teacher education and coordination of all program areas affecting teacher preparation were encouraged. Unity of the people aided in the defense of the country. Training was designed to meet the defensive needs.

Transformation of Teachers Colleges into State Colleges
and Accreditation of Teacher Education, 1943-1965

By the beginning of this period, economic and social conditions had changed considerably in the United States. Americans were concerned primarily with increasing basic production and establishing and maintaining a strong program of national defense. A population explosion, major wars, and continuous threat of other conflicts throughout the world, as well as the race to conquer space, resulted in vast social and technological changes. Teacher education programs were slow in utilizing the technological development made possible during these 20 years.

Transformation of Teachers Colleges into State Colleges

Teachers colleges had evolved during the period of 1890-1933. Within 20 years after they had emerged out of the normal schools, they began to transform themselves into general state colleges or state universities (DeVane, 1965; Elsbree, 1963; Woodring 1962a). These multipurpose institutions were designed to offer a much wider program; they granted liberal arts and other degrees, as well as the B.S. in Education, which was usually the only degree offered by the teachers college.

This change came first in the Middle West and the Far West. It came more slowly in the Northeast section where powerful private colleges and universities bitterly resisted the efforts of the teachers colleges to take on new responsibilities (Woodring, 1962a).

In California, the state normal schools became teachers colleges in 1921 and general state colleges in 1935 (Woodring, 1962a). Ohio bypassed the naming of normal schools as teachers colleges altogether. The "normal schools" at Bowling Green and Kent (which, despite their names, actually had been degree granting teachers colleges throughout the 1920s) became "state colleges" in 1930 and "state universities" only a few years later. But, in the neighboring state of Michigan, the normal school at Kalamazoo became Western Michigan State Teachers College in 1927, Western Michigan College of Education in 1941, and Western Michigan University in 1957.

Changes in the policies and practices of the teacher training institutions were largely in response to changed needs and conditions in public education. Public education had expanded laterally to include new types of subject matter and linearly to prolong the period of schooling to include four years of secondary education.

Academic Orientation Movement and Teacher Education

Progressive educators, whose views were dominant in the previous period, emphasized the role of the teacher as a democratic leader of a problem-solving group and cast the roles of the teacher and student as creators of knowledge constructed in light of social purposes. The academic reformers during this period, however, saw the role of the teacher as primarily a dispenser of knowledge and saw the disciplines as the sources of the important knowledge (Stinnett, 1954).

The academic reform movement viewed man as a scholar (Joyce, 1975). Its approach to teacher education was to train the teacher to think like a scholar (Butterweck, 1957; Dewey, 1962; Dodson, 1949; Gross, 1959; Lindsey, 1949) and "to practice the disciplines" with children.

It is debatable how far the academic community resided within the mainstream of American society. The predominance of academic content within the schooling process might be taken as evidence that the work of the scholar obtained high recognition within the culture. The role of scholars as advisors to government attested to a certain degree of acceptance. However, intellectuals frequently express alienation from the center of the society. Hofstadter (1963) and his students have taken great pains to point out and document the extent to which anti-intellectualism characterizes mainstream America. A considerable proportion of the literary expression of the century has been a reaction by intellectuals to the barbarism of economic man. For example, Babbitt by Sinclair Lewis has great symbolic value in this respect as does Brave New World by Aldous Huxley.

In the 1950s and 1960s, some unity regarding education developed within the academic community. Representatives to the academic disciplines obtained large appropriations from the National Science Foundation and the academics' areas of the U. S. Department of Education, thus capitalizing on the Russian achievements with Sputnik (Devane, 1965; Elsbree, 1963; Ludeman, 1958; McConnell, 1959; Thackrey, 1971). Discussions of our system in comparison with the Russian system

(McConnell, 1959; Tulasiewicz, 1959) spread to every village and hamlet in the U. S. A. The background preparation of teachers began to receive considerable attention in these discussions.

Scholar-led curriculum development projects in the sciences, mathematics, social studies, English, and foreign languages created materials for children built around the ideas and methods of the academic disciplines. The emphasis on science and mathematics, growing out of Soviet achievements in both the space and nuclear fields, led educators to place greater stress on these subjects in programs of teacher preparation. In these programs, prominence was given to the information-processing power of the academic disciplines (Ausubel, 1963; Fenton, 1967). The effort was focused on conceptual capacities of man and the potential contributions of scholarly concepts to improve his life. The movement clearly intended to make academic thought more intelligible to the citizen and to prepare more students for a life of scholarship (Goodlad, 1964). The teacher was to be the surrogate of this period (Duncan & Frymier, 1960; Joyce, 1975).

Bruner (1960) suggested four advantages for organizing instruction around the central concepts of the academic disciplines: (a) memory would be facilitated by providing students an ideational scaffolding with which to organize and retain information; (b) students would have greater comprehension and greater intellectual power by providing unifying ideas to help them comprehend their worlds; (c) the major concepts would increase the transfer of education to problem-solving situations by providing an intellectual structure for thinking about

problems; and (d) the education of the child would be brought closer to the forefront of knowledge. Students would be learning the same types of concepts which advanced scholars use rather than distillation and assertions far removed from the ideas that drive advanced technique.

The rediscovery of Piaget by American psychologists, given the frame of reference of the academic disciplines, made it almost inevitable that the emphasis on teaching and the structure of the disciplines would be succeeded by attempts to improve cognitive processes directly (Ulich, R., 1950). Hence there arose, especially in primary education, many programs for children based on extrapolations from Piagetian theory (Flavell, 1963; Gallagher & Easley, 1978; Green, G. J., 1978; McNally, 1974; Pulaski, 1971). These centered on the attempt to teach cognitive processes directly and to accelerate the development of logical thinking in children (Sigel & Hooper, 1968; Sullivan, 1967).

Along with Dewey, Piaget advocated "learning by doing." By giving prospective teachers more initiative (Jelinek, 1956), more freedom (Haines, 1960), and a better foundation in child psychology and research (Pulaski, 1971; Scales, 1948), the teacher training programs could increase the possibility of an "active learning situation" being provided for children in the schools (Borrowman, 1957). The children would be allowed to explore, question, and discover for themselves (Resnick, 1952; Snygg & Combs, 1949). By encouraging children to use intelligence and creativity, the teacher would be aiding them in effectively using their minds and talents in handling the "knowledge explosion" (Postman & Weingartner, 1969).

Continuing Work of the Commission on Teacher Education

The Commission on Teacher Education, created in February 1938 and formally dissolved in September 1944, devoted most of its time, energy, and means to the conduct of an extensive field program (Evenden, 1942; The Improvement of Teacher, 1946; Teachers for Our, 1944). Included was a national cooperative study in which a large number of representative school systems, colleges, and universities participated, and a series of statewide cooperative studies involving teacher education in ten states. Service, as mentioned in the previous period, to these enterprises was provided by a central staff located in Washington, D.C.; a collaboration center on child growth and development was housed at the University of Chicago. Eight published reports resulted from the Commission's field experience and from its deliberations.

The Commission, along with other educators and even their critics, recommended that teachers should possess the following qualifications, general knowledge, special knowledge, professional knowledge, and skill in teaching (Elsbree, 1963; The Improvement of Teacher, 1946; Woodring, 1975). From this clear consensus of what needed to be included in the preparation of teachers, a sound program to improve teacher training was advocated (McAllister, 1944).

A firm foundation in a broad and general liberal education was necessary (Aldrich, 1959; Anderson, W. A. & Howe, K. E., 1949; Armstrong, Hollis, & Davis, 1944; Butterweck, 1951; Gross, 1959; Hartford, 1957; Lindsey, 1949; Maaske, 1949; McGrath, 1947, 1948; White, J. B., 1953; Woodring, 1962b). These courses would give the student a

thirst for knowledge and an interest in its acquisition. They would help to create a more self-directed personality in the student; he or she would be better equipped in seeking self-selected educational objectives.

Students needed to be grounded in subject matter, especially in acquiring knowledge of their major field(s) (Armstrong et al., 1944; Bond, 1953; Borrowman, 1957; Boss, 1945; Dodson, 1949; Gross, 1959; Hartford, 1957; Jelinek, 1956; Maaske, 1949; McGrath, 1947; Peik, 1946; Resnick, 1952; Tonne, 1963; Walters & Halsted, 1962; White, J. B., 1953; Woodring, 1962b). It was necessary for prospective teachers to be competent in the subject materials of their specialization and to be familiar with the resource backgrounds available in their area(s) of teaching preparation.

Solid preparation was advised in the courses categorized as professional education (Anderson, W. A. & Howe, K. E., 1949; Bond, 1953; Borrowman, 1957; Boss, 1945; Butterweck, 1957; Cartwright, 1973; Dodson, 1949; Gross, 1959; Haines, 1960; Hartford, 1957; Hightower, 1957; Hockett, 1953; Jelinek, 1956; Lindsey, 1949; Ludeman, 1952; McGrath, 1947; Peik, 1946; Shuster, 1955; Walters & Halsted, 1962; White, J. B., 1953; Woodring, 1962b). The professional education courses included educational psychology (Amatora, 1957; Bruce, 1952; Elsbree, 1963; Stanley, 1949; Walters & Halsted, 1962); child growth and development (Amatora, 1957; Anderson, W. A. & Howe, K. E., 1949; Walters & Halsted, 1962; Woodring, 1962b); history of education (Anderson, A. W., 1954; Elsbree, 1963; Rubenstein, 1958; Stanley, 1949; Walters & Halsted,

1962); philosophy of education (Champlin, 1949; Clark, L. H., 1956; Hockett, 1953; Josephs, 1964); and curriculum (Anderson, W. A. & Howe, K. E., 1949; Douglass & Mills, 1943).

Professional training of prospective teachers enabled them to use the knowledge that they had acquired about the individual's relation to his or her home, his or her community, the world of work, the larger world scene, and the understanding of self. A philosophy which could comprehend that process by which certain data, observation, experiences, and opinions were brought together into as consistent and true a theory of education as is possible at a particular time was invaluable to the prospective teachers.

Viewed as an integral and vital part of the total teacher education program, the internship or extended period of practice teaching was enthusiastically endorsed (Armstrong et al., 1944; Bishop, 1948b; Cartwright, 1963; Gardner, 1968; Horrocks, 1946; McGrath, 1947, 1949; Ortman, 1944; Park, F. R., 1950; Peik, 1946; Permenter, 1954; Tonne, 1963; White, J. B., 1953; Woodring, 1962b). The primary purpose of this experience was to integrate theory and practice (Bishop, 1948b; Blyler, 1947; Dewey, 1962; Gardner, 1968). This experience would also provide for better understanding of children, provide for better induction of the prospective teachers into teaching, and provide for development of the ability to apply sound philosophy of education thus broadening the outlook and sharpening the ideas of prospective teachers.

A final recommendation to be included in an improved teacher education program was a proposal of a five-year program (Butterweck,

1957; Cartwright, 1963; Douglass & Mills, 1943; Elsbree, 1963; Gardner, 1968; Stanley, 1949; Woodring, 1975). The five-year program was very similar to the Masters of Arts in Teaching (MAT) program that was originated at Harvard in 1936 (Cartwright, 1963; Elsbree, 1963; Woodring, 1963, 1975). After receiving a bachelor's degree, the students entered the institution for an extra year of training in graduate work and an internship; this combined professional courses with on-the-job training experience. The five-year program would encourage greater cooperation among the educational departments of the teacher training institutions and greater cooperation between teacher education institutions and school systems, would emphasize recruitment of superior students, and would encourage the search for better devices and techniques of teaching. (This five-year program is in use in some teacher education institutions today.)

Out of the extensive field program conducted over a six-year period by the Commission on Teacher Education has come pertinent implications for improvement in teacher preparation (Stiles, 1947). The Commission realized that the design of any educational program should grow out of its function (Hightower, 1957). In order to be effective, that function must be in terms of the needs of the society which the institution serves. The improvements in teacher preparation recommended were at the very heart of our democracy because they would reach out to affect the development of an entire generation of youth. The democratic methods used in the curriculum revision were believed to be essential not only because they were psychologically sound but also because their means and

ends needed to correspond in order to reach the envisioned goals of education (Bruce, 1952). The recommended improvements were seen as the way to help develop socially competent personalities who would be capable of guiding the growth and development of youth from nursery school through kindergarten, elementary school, secondary school, and college/university into adult competency.

The foregoing discussion is based on published recommendations for the improvement of teacher education. Unfortunately, few research studies were conducted to document the actual programs and their effectiveness during the period (Turner, 1975). This was due to differences in philosophy on the part of educators and to the absence of reliable measuring devices which forced reliance on subjective judgments in making assessments (Butterweck, 1957; Elsbree, 1963).

Usage of New Educational Techniques and Devices

Demands were beginning throughout the period for the preparation of more flexible teachers who could readily create and work in new situations. Reforms were being proposed in such areas as school staff organization, reclassification of pupils in the schools, and the use of a variety of methods of instruction utilizing all types of audiovisual equipment and devices developed by new technology (Cartwright, 1963; Klein, 1962; Lindsey, 1961).

"Team teaching," where two or more teachers work cooperatively in the instruction of the same group of children, was one of the new forms of educational organization (Brown, M. & West, J., 1958; Cartwright,

1953; Fullerton, 1962; Gardner, 1968; Lindsey, 1961; St. Mary, 1959; Woodring, 1975). The division of responsibility was usually according to the specialized knowledge of the teachers in the team. It could also be according to the professional skills of the members of the team and the complexity of the teaching tasks. In the latter situation, teacher aides would perform some of the simpler acts of teaching, and a senior teacher would take the responsibility for leading the team and carrying out the more complex teaching responsibilities. Team teaching involved a reorganization of the school schedule and often of the school architecture. Part of the time students--as many as a hundred or more--would be combined into a large group for lectures or demonstrations; part of the time they would be in small groups for discussion; part of the time they would study independently.

B. F. Skinner developed the "teaching machine" which came to be used in the classroom (Bruner, 1960; Pulaski, 1971; Woodring, 1975). The objective of the teaching machine was to make the learning process much more efficient and speedy (Atkinson, N. J. & Atkinson, J. N., 1975; Lindsey, 1961). It was an aid in independent study (Better Utilization, 1959). Students would be presented with a stimulus which would give them information and demand a response. It would be a continual necessity for the learners to utilize the information in making the response. After responding, the learners would be presented feed-back information which would enable them to ascertain the appropriateness of their response. Although programmed learning machines could remove from the classroom the drudgery of essential repetition in the basic

subjects, they were mainly criticized because of their usage of a kind of rote learning.

The use of television (TV) as an educational tool in the classroom became popular (Bessent, W., Harris, B. M., & Thomas, M. P., Jr., 1968; Lindsey, 1961; Woodring, 1975). Television was one of the most effective means of human communication; it was immediate, graphic, and widespread (Partridge, 1960). Advocates of educational TV argued that television could be effective when incorporated wisely into the school routine (Byrnes, J. L. & Smith, J. A., 1954). Reports by Kumate (1956, 1960), a summary of research by Finn (1953), and a review of 393 research studies by Schramm (1962), presented evidence that students learn at least as well from instructional TV as from ordinary classroom methods.

The great value of television was believed to be in imparting knowledge (Bessent, W. et al., 1968; Partridge, 1960), in vitalizing subject matter (Rehage & Heywood, 1952), in stimulating student interest and activity (Partridge, 1960; Rehage & Heywood, 1952; Witty, 1954), and in broadening students' background by the use of resources which would not normally be at their disposal (Griffith & MacLennan, 1964; Partridge, 1960; Rehage & Heywood, 1952).

Foundation Funding in Teacher Preparation

The foundations had a distinctive and critical role to play in teacher training during this period. That role was to encourage and support new ways of attacking basic problems (Cartwright, 1963; Eurich,

1963; Woodring, 1970, 1975). The foundations supported promising developments for which neither public money, institutional funds, nor the resources of other private agencies were available. The program of grants had a double effect of attracting more able students into teaching, and of improving the quality of teaching in the schools by strengthening the preparation of teachers (Eurich, 1963; Woodring, 1970).

Since 1950, the availability of funds outside the regular budgets of colleges and universities for financing programs in teacher education have increased (Cairwright, 1963; Woodring, 1975). Both the federal government and private philanthropic foundations have granted millions of dollars for this purpose.

In 1951, the Fund for the Advancement of Education made it possible for Harvard to enlarge its MAT program (Aten, 1969/1970; Powell, 1980; Woodring, 1963, 1970, 1975), which had its origin two decades earlier. Because of a conflict of views between academic scholars and professional educators, a new kind of preparation was devised to incorporate the best thinking of both groups. The purpose of this preparation program, the MAT, was to provide a graduate level program open to carefully selected liberal arts graduates, which combined a study of discipline with a sequence of professional seminars and a period of internship.

Some of the principles basic to the MAT were incorporated into programs offered by graduate schools of education which offered the M.Ed. rather than the MAT. Both the M.Ed. and the MAT programs received

financial support from grants from the Fund for the Advancement of Education (Elsbree, 1963; Woodring, 1970, 1975).

The Ford Foundation provided grants to colleges and universities to help in revising the programs of teacher education (Eurich, 1963; Woodring, 1970). After several years of supporting diverse experimentation in improving teacher training programs, the Ford Foundation, in 1958, inaugurated a series of "break-through" grants designed to accelerate the most promising practices and to encourage the use of the reform which was emerging (Stone, 1968; Woodring, 1970). The grants were awarded to proposed programs that (a) extended the general or liberal education of teachers; (b) substituted internship experience for much of the course work in professional education; (c) developed the "team approach" to teaching; and (d) recognized that the preparation of teachers is a joint responsibility of colleges and school systems (Eurich, 1963; Woodring, 1970).

Teaching Profession: Standards and Control

A profession, as distinguished from a skilled trade, rests upon a substantial body of scholarly knowledge (Fadenrecht, 1947; Woodring, 1963). The scholarly knowledge that makes teaching a profession comes from many fields--a good background in general education, a knowledge of the subject to be taught, an understanding of the meaning and purpose of education, and an understanding of the nature of the child and of the learning process (Rautman, 1950). In addition, those who have the breadth of training, experience, and vision to see education as a vital

life activity and to see it whole, both in the formal classroom and in a wider social environment, will greatly enhance the professionalism of teaching (Rowland, 1945; Taylor, 1958).

Since colleges and universities are the professional parents of the teacher trainees, it becomes incumbent upon these institutions to include curricula which are vocationally and professionally vital (Love, 1954). As well-patterned and continuous programs of professional training are required for prospective teachers, the teaching profession will gradually gain increased professional status (Fadenrecht, 1947). An important means of establishing professional standards, of maintaining those standards, and then of raising those standards through constant research and continual analysis would be to create an agency responsible for these tasks (Caswell, 1964).

Prior to 1927, there were no standards for the accreditation of teacher education (Lindsey, 1961). The American Association of Teachers Colleges, founded in 1918, began accrediting colleges in 1927 (Stinnett, 1969). In 1948, AATC merged with two other organizations to form the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education with the new organization retaining control of accreditation. The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) was established in 1952 (Bush, R. N. & Enemark, P., 1975; Elsbree, 1963; Woodring, 1963). In 1954, the AACTE turned its accreditation function over to the NCATE (Lessenger, 1954; Lindsey, 1961), and NCATE became the official national agency for accreditation of teacher education. The over-all objective of NCATE was "that of raising the level of the teaching profession

through accreditation of teacher education programs by cooperative action of all parties concerned" (Lessenger, 1954, p. 28).

Accreditation at the national level through NCATE is voluntary, although there are compelling pressures to "volunteer." Haywood (1974) stated,

for a successful college or university submitting to or seeking out accreditation is about as voluntary as summoning a physician if you think you are struck with a heart attack or stopping at a red light on a highway. The federal government uses established accreditation as a screening device for granting funds. Foundations, athletic associations, and reciprocal interstate agreements all use "voluntary" accreditation listings for determining worthiness of institutions or programs. (p. 226)

In the case of teacher education, state reciprocity in certification of graduates of NCATE-approved institutions places considerable pressure on colleges to be "voluntarily" accredited (Bush, R. N. & Enemark, P., 1975; Lindsey, 1961).

To help in improving professional standards, Lindsey (1961) suggested that the following procedures be employed by the NCATE:

1. To make maximum use of institutional motivation for self-improvement;
2. To include preparation of evaluators and limit membership on accrediting teams to those who have prepared for the job;
3. To involve all segments of the total profession;
4. To provide maximum service to institutions in minimum time;
5. To require regular interim reports from institutions;
6. To include periodic re-evaluation of accredited programs; and
7. To apply standards rigorously, approving only programs of high quality. (p. 140)

While program approval of teacher training institutions is a function of the accrediting agency, individual states maintain control of the certification or licensing of the individual to teach (Caswell, 1964; Lindsey, 1961). The state cannot relinquish its responsibility. Accordingly, teacher education programs must be consistent with existing controls and laws.

In summary. With the nation recovering from the upheavals of World War II and emerging to cope with the demands of the knowledge explosion, teacher education continued to modify itself. Teachers colleges evolved into state colleges. Concern developed for the preparation of teachers. Teacher educators advocated a teacher preparation program that included a broad and general knowledge base, knowledge in subject matter to be taught and in professional education, and experiences in practice teaching. Although curricula diversity characterized the programs for the preparation of teachers, basic similarities in organization and content of the teacher training courses were advocated nationwide. An institutional accreditation agency was formed to help maintain standards. The value of teacher education programs was measured by the extent to which they served the American society and the schools they supported and cherished.

Conflict in Teacher Preparation, 1965-1975

Throughout the period changes were occurring across the United States. Productivity increased significantly because of the development of automation; the electronic computer contributed tremendously to

automatic production. The potentialities of cybernetics, the science devoted to the study of communication and electronic control mechanisms, were also explored. Automation and other technological miracles stemmed in part from heavy investment in research and development by both business and government. Aerospace, a \$25 billion industry by 1967 (Blum et al., 1968), became a particular focus for new research and investment. The Apollo project set in motion a vast technological effort with a multitude of indirect scientific and economic implications.

New interest in culture and the arts transpired. The level of popular taste was steadily rising. The mass media, by enlarging the range of cultural possibilities, was enriching the experience of the individual. For the first time in human affairs, aesthetic experience was readily available, not just to the elite, but to the masses.

In governmental affairs, the administration of Lyndon B. Johnson was intent on extending popular respect for liberal principles, intellectual dissent, and civil liberties. His administration emphasized the need to fight communism abroad. Unlike the Korean War period, the anti-Communist appeals did not silence dissent. Our involvement in the Vietnam War intensified student alienation. Increasingly after 1965, college campuses became centers of political and intellectual dissent. By 1968, demonstrations against the war and the Johnson administration became more belligerent. Student dissent extended to a more general critique of American society, and college unrest spilled over to the junior high and high schools.

A new generational conflict, a tension between and among generations, sprang not only from familiar psychological causes but also from surrounding social circumstances. Though most young men and women continued to accept the prevailing social norms, a significant minority suffered deep feelings of alienation from and hostility to the world that they had never made. Their rejection of the world took the forms of a passive defection from American society and an active determination to change that society.

Personalistic Reformers

The peace demonstrations in Washington, D. C., in the late 1960s were demonstrations of conviction by informed and thoughtful students who had found their own way to a set of conclusions on American foreign policy. Their commitment was to a set of personal values that measured public policy by humanitarian principle. These were the students who were learning to educate themselves in their own terms. They had a natural affinity of the student for the teacher and wished to be recognized for their individual abilities.

The antecedents of this person-oriented philosophical and psychological position reached well into the past. Not until Rousseau did we have an articulation of the stance that the individual human being was the basic unit of humanity, and that education could facilitate his or her unfolding and natural goodness (Caswell, 1968; Cogan, 1975; Joyce, 1975).

Personalistic education emphasized a person-centered method of teaching and learning (Burch & Reardon, 1970; Caswell, 1968; Cogan, 1975; Smith, B. O., 1971). Individual differences among students were recognized, and adjustments were made to accomodate them. With the range of potentialities and interests being wide and diverse, the variabilities of achievement were tremendous.

The stand toward the personalistic view of students stressed their own uniqueness (Bassett, 1978; Cadenhead & Newell, 1973; Iannone and Carline, 1971; Smith, B. O., 1971) and the importance of their own emotional make-up ("Emotional Emphasis," 1971; Neil, 1970). Emotion served as the driving force of life (Stratemeyer, 1969). The role of the intellect was to enrich rather than to curb the emotions, to direct their expression toward goals emerging from viable knowledge and cultural ideals ("Emotional Emphasis," 1971). Only to the degree that intellectual power and emotional drive were related could thought grow so that behavior was consistent with values sought, and courage to act was in keeping with insight (Combs, 1972; Conrad, Nash, & Shiman, 1973). All this did not minimize the importance of rational, intellectual knowledge. Knowledge became vital only as it became a part of the whole person, as intellect and feelings interact (Conrad et al., 1973; Lindsey, 1973; Stratemeyer, 1969).

Besides freeing their personalities, another position of personalistic education was to help students to develop on their own terms (Cadenhead & Newell, 1973; Dick & Dodi, 1973; Howsam, 1971; Iannone & Carline, 1971; McCarty, 1973; Taylor, Doyle, & Link, 1971).

It was important for the teacher to be able to diagnose an individual student's specific abilities, needs, and readiness (Braun, 1972; Burck & Reardon, 1970; Gage & Winne, 1975; Smith, B. O., 1971). An essential objective of individualization was to give students motivation and skill for life-long learning (Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A., 1971; Cooper, J. M. & Sadker, D., 1972; Lindsey, 1973; Russell, J. E., 1966; Torrance, 1967). Individualized study involved sensitivity, imagination, empathy, alert guidance, and a broad range of knowledge and skills from the teacher. Such teaching required a great deal more intellectual and emotional energy than the more traditional ways of teaching, and required the use of professional skills beyond the scope of most teachers (Gill, 1968; Torrance, 1967).

A chief spokesman for the personalistic education of teachers was Arthur W. Combs (Combs, 1965; Combs, Blume, Newman, & Wass, 1974; Joyce, 1975). He preferred to emphasize the personal character of good teaching:

a good teacher is primarily a unique personality. If good teachers are unique individuals, we can predict from the start that the attempt to find common uniqueness would be unlikely to get results. . . . A good teacher is first and foremost a person, and this fact is the most important and determining thing about him. He has competence, to be sure, but not a common set of competencies like anyone else. (Combs, 1965, p. 6)

Combs argued that teacher education should not attempt to provide teachers with a set repertory of teaching strategies. Rather, teachers should be encouraged to develop their own repertory in their own unique way, a necessity due to the perceptual basis of behavior.

Perceptual psychology was viewed as not just the study of the behavior of people or of their internal lives but as the study of persons (Combs, A. W., Richards, A. C., & Richards, F., 1976). Accordingly, behavior was only a symptom. It represented the externally observable manifestation of what was going on inside a person. Persons did not only behave. In addition to trying to understand them in behavioral terms, it was necessary to examine how they felt, thought, believed, liked/disliked, understood, loved/hated, feared, valued, or aspired (Combs, 1962).

Perceptual psychology shifted the locus of basic facts of psychology from the stimulus or behavior to the personal field of meanings of the organisms. It provided a vehicle for understanding both behavior and the internal personal field of meanings from which it arose.

Combs (1965) hypothesized that

the basic concept of perceptual psychology is that all behavior of a person is the direct result of his field of perceptions at the moment of his behaving. More specifically, his behavior at any instant is the result of (1) how he sees himself, (2) how he sees the situation in which he is involved, and (3) the interrelations of the two. (p. 12)

The adjustment and perception of individuals, their interpersonal relations, and ability to education themselves all came from their views of themselves. Combs dealt with what was done to help teachers develop as a person and as a teacher. It was not that Combs believed that teachers did not need to achieve competency and knowledge, but that he believed these would develop in relation to their own views of

themselves as persons and professionals rather than being the product of an imposed curriculum.

From the personalistic point of view, to train a teacher one must help them develop, first, an adequate self (Combs, 1965, 1972; Cooper, J. M. & Sadker, D., 1972; Neil, 1970; Taylor et al., 1971); second, reliable ways of perceiving others and their goals (Blume, 1971; Conrad et al., 1972; Iannone & Carline, 1971; Neil, 1970); and third, the ability to learn substance when it was needed (Blume, 1971; Conrad et al., 1972; Joyce, 1975). To prepare such a teacher, it is necessary for teacher educators to provide a helping relationship for prospective teachers just as they must provide one for their students.

Competency Orientation

Unlike personalistic teacher education which emphasized a person-centered method of teaching and learning with variabilities of achievement being tremendous because of a wide and diverse range of potentialities and interests, competency based teacher education stressed an instructional systems approach to education which included mastery learning, a set of performance criteria which each trainee must meet, and evaluation of the trainee's performance skills. The competencies were identifiable abilities and skills which were observable and could be demonstrated and assessed.

In many ways the competency orientation was a logical extension of the industrial model of the school (Joyce, 1975). It was based in part on the desire to make schooling more efficient and to hold teacher

educators and teachers accountable for the effects of their efforts (Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A., 1971; Cooper, J. M. & Sadker, D., 1972; Edwards, 1974; Gage & Winne, 1975; Getz, Kennedy, Pierce, Edwards, & Chesebro, 1973; Howsam, 1972; Howsam & Houston, 1972; Lindsey, 1973; McCarty, 1973). It employed many techniques originally developed in industrial or military applications of systems technology. Its emphases on computer-based management systems (Coffing & Hamreus, 1973; Johnson, C. E., 1973), the use of multi-media instructional devices (Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A., 1971; Edwards, 1974; Lindsey, 1973), the development of data storage and retrieval systems to store program elements, objectives, and evaluation devices (Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A., 1971; Dick & Dodi, 1973), represented a look beyond the traditional age to the emerging technetronic industrial age.

A competency based teacher education program, according to J. M. Cooper and W. A. Weber (1973)

specifies the competencies to be demonstrated by the student, makes explicit the criteria to be applied in assessing the student's competencies, and holds the student accountable for meeting those criteria. (p. 14)

The competencies referred to were attitudes, understandings, skills, and behaviors that facilitated intellectual, social, emotional, and physical growth in children (Edwards, 1974; Lindsey, 1973). The teacher trainees were held responsible for demonstrating these competencies, because they were necessary to teaching effectiveness (Daly, 1970; Gage & Winne, 1975). Three types of criteria were used to determine the teacher trainees' levels of achievement in these

competencies: (a) knowledge competencies which specified cognitive understandings that the teacher trainees were expected to demonstrate; (b) performance competencies which specified teaching behaviors and attitudes that the teacher trainees were expected to demonstrate; and (c) consequence competencies which specified pupil behaviors that were taken as evidence of the teacher trainees teaching effectiveness (Cooper, J. A., Jones, W. A., & Weber, H. L., 1973; Cooper, J. M. & Weber, W. A., 1973; Gage & Winne, 1975).

Competency based teacher education placed the burden of professional preparation clearly on those most responsible for it, the college of education faculty (Cooper, J. M. & Sadker, D., 1972; Daly, 1970; Lindsey, 1973). They were asked to design learning opportunities (modules in most cases) to give prospective teachers the preparation they needed (Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A., 1971; Edwards, 1974). Explicit criteria were appropriately planned and carefully monitored. The college assumed the responsibility for assuring that the students had had ample opportunities to demonstrate their competence (Cooper, J. M. & Sadker, D., 1972; Daly, 1970; Edwards, 1974; Lindsey, 1973).

Many competency based programs required that evaluation be based on pupil behavior rather than on teacher behavior (Lindsey, 1973; Rosner, 1973). Attempts to correlate teacher behavior with student learning led to a greater emphasis on learning opportunities for children (Andrews, T. E., 1972b; Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A., 1971; Gage & Winne, 1975). Proponents believed that a focus on performance competencies/objectives (specific behaviors matched with learning experiences) would

move the emphasis to teaching in the sense of helping or facilitating learning (Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A., 1971; Cooper, J. M. & Sadker, D., 1972; Howsam, 1972; Lindsey, 1973; Russell, J. E., 1966). Systematic programming also provided feedback to the individual and to the program, as well as promoting research opportunities (Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A., 1971; Gage & Winne, 1975).

Innovations and Reforms in Teaching Techniques

One source from which competency based teacher education emerged was behavioral psychology (Gage & Winne, 1975; Joyce, 1975; Smith, B. O., 1971) and its application to training, especially in industrial and military settings. In such training, the repertoire of skills to be achieved was analyzed systematically to specify less complex behavioral components and their interrelationships (Cooper, J. M. & Weber, W. A., 1973; Flanders, 1970; Medley & Mitzel, 1963; Smith, B. O., 1969). Training usually began with verbal instruction in the behavioral components, then proceeded with practice in performing the skills to be learned, and the practice was followed by corrective feedback.

This general strategy was first transferred to education in the form of programmed instruction (Atkinson, N. J. & Atkinson, J. N., 1975; Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A. 1971; Gage & Winne, 1975; Lindsey, 1973; Woodring, 1975). Programmed instruction made apparent the advantages of (a) detailed analyses of educational objectives in behavioral terms, (b) sequencing and organizing elements of the knowledge and skill to be acquired, and (c) individualizing the rate at which students progressed.

In the middle 1960s, the model was adapted to teacher education in the form of microteaching ("And Now It's 'Minicourses'," 1968; Ashlock, 1968; Aubertine, 1967; Borg, 1972; Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A., 1971; Cooper, J. M. & Sadker, D., 1972; Dugas, 1967; Dyer, 1974; Edwards, 1974; Gage & Winne, 1975; Harris, W. N., Lee, V. W., & Pigge, F. L., 1970; Johnson, W. D., 1967; Kallenback & Gall, 1969; McDonald & Allen, 1967; Smith, B. O., 1971; Taylor et al., 1971; Woodring, 1975). Teaching strategies were analyzed into relatively discrete teaching skills. The trainees then practiced these skills individually with a small number of students for a brief period of time. Following the microteaching, the trainees received corrective feedback, modified their performances according to the most constructive suggestions, and usually did additional micro-teaching.

Based upon research on microteaching, a minicourse instructional model was developed (Allen & Ryan, 1969; "And Now It's 'Minicourses'," 1968; Borg, 1972; Borg, Kelley, Langer, & Gall, 1970; Cooper, J. M. & Sadker, D., 1972; Gage & Winne, 1975; Haberman, 1968). A minicourse was an individualized multi-media learning package designed to help teacher trainees develop instructional skills. The characteristics of an effective minicourse were (a) clear objectives: to develop proficiency in specific instructional function; (b) relevant content: to select functions from or tested in actual practice; and (c) behavioral evaluation: to demonstrate the performance of the selected functions. A minicourse could be offered more quickly and with less of the initial time commitment than was required for a regular course.

Videotaping served as a means of recording the teaching experiences of the teacher trainees (Acheson, 1964/1965; Borg, 1972; Cooper, J. M. & Sadker, D., 1972; Dyer, 1974; Edwards, 1974; Friedman, N. L., 1968; Gordon & Falk, 1972; Kallenback & Gall, 1969; Lane, 1968; McInnes, 1980; Taylor et al., 1971). Teacher trainees were assigned a particular task and taped while performing it. Afterwards, as on instant replay, they could see where mistakes had been made, or, conversely, where an effective technique had been used. By seeing themselves in action, teacher trainees could pinpoint weaknesses and thus determine where more work was needed, just as they could judge strengths and plan how better to exploit them.

The technique of simulation in teacher education served as a means of providing classroom experience prior to actual teaching experience (Chambers, M. A. & Graham, R. A., 1971; Cooper, J. M. & Sadker, D., 1972; Cruickshank, 1965; Lane, 1968; Twelker, 1967; Vlcek, 1965/1966; Wolfe & Macauley, 1975). Essentially, simulation was a creation of realistic games to be played by participants in order to provide them with lifelike problem-solving experiences related to their future work. Such game situations required each player to make decisions based upon previous training and available information. After the player encountered an incident and made a subsequent decision, he or she was provided with opportunities to see and discuss one or more possible consequences that might result. As a practicum experience serving as a simplified slice of reality, simulation enabled teacher trainees to gain familiarity with teacher behaviors based on accepted principles of teaching and learning.

Civil Rights Movement

The civil rights movement was one of the leading forces of educational reform throughout this period. Education and civil rights were bound together. A quest for equity and quality in education permeated this period. Demands for equal educational opportunities were involved in all phases of the civil rights struggle, including litigation, legislation, demonstrations, research, and action programs.

The 1964 Federal Civil Rights Bill sought to strengthen the provisions that would make for equality, eliminate discrimination, and promote racial justice (Blackstone, 1969; Daniel, W. G., 1965; Hess, 1965; Keppel, 1965; Morsell, 1965; Smith, W. L., 1975). It contained a specific title or section which empowered the Attorney General of United States to bring suits in order that all persons might have equal access to public school education, and it authorized technical and financial assistance to school districts which desired help as they desegregated their systems. By enacting Title IV of the Bill, the Congress made it plain that all three branches of government were united in forbidding classification and assignment of pupils on grounds of race, color, religion, or national origin.

Other sections of Title IV provided for technical assistance, including information, guidance, and expert personnel, to aid in desegregating school systems by helping educators with special problems that might arise in implementing their plans. Training institutes might be developed by the U. S. Commissioner of Education to train teachers and administrative personnel in dealing with desegregation problems

(Fischer, L. & Schimmel, D., 1973; Morsell, 1965). Federal involvement assisted teacher training in admission standards and recruitment, student loans, and research grants and equipment (Keppel, 1965; Morsell, 1965).

In addition to the civil rights enactments, other legislation, such as the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and the Teaching Professions Act of 1965, was designed to improve the quality of teaching in poor neighborhoods. The laws stressed preparing teachers who were competent to educate socially disadvantaged children and youth and improve teacher education programs so that the profession might recruit a larger number of persons with higher qualifications (Daniel, W. G., 1965; Keppel, 1965; Morsell, 1965; Smith, W. L., 1975). School districts were to be helped by federal funds to provide remedial instruction, pre-school programs, special guidance, study centers, enrichment of language and science courses, additional personnel, and educational radio and TV.

There was no question that civil rights forces and educators forged a partnership to achieve a common goal of complete equality of opportunity (Blackstone, 1969; Fischer, L. & Schimmel, D., 1973). Integration required mutual awareness and action.

Teachers were given regular opportunities to update their knowledge. Curricula were adjusted to accommodate new knowledge. Students were encouraged to seek satisfying learning experiences. Even where physical desegregation was an accomplished fact, there remained a great deal of work to keep education continually responsive.

Teacher Certification

Throughout the mid-1960s and early 1970s, the teaching profession assumed increased responsibility for determining certification policies and procedures (Melaro & Davies, 1966; Stinnett, 1967a, 1967b, 1971). Several states set up a nonpolitical, legally recognized agency, broadly representative of the teaching profession, with the responsibilities of developing and recommending certification policies and procedures (Andrews, T. E., 1972b; Stinnett, 1967a, 1967b, 1971). By including elementary and secondary school classroom teachers and college teachers in the liberal arts field in the advisory and certification standards boards, the process of renewal and improvement in certification was broadened.

The development in the direction of institutional autonomy in defining teacher education programs, within the framework or provisions by the state, was reflected in the adoption of the approved program approach (Armstrong & Stinnett, 1964; Melaro & Davies, 1966; Stinnett, 1967a, 1967b, 1971). Under this plan, the state agency set up criteria for teacher education programs, evaluated the programs, and issued certificates on the recommendation of the approved institutions. If the spirit of program approval was followed, certification regulations no longer included specific course and credit requirements. The approved program approach relied on a college's responsibility for its graduates rather than on rigid specificity of requirements.

Since the approved program approach applied only to in-state institutions, it followed that out-of-state applicants had their

credentials evaluated in terms of the prescribed certification requirements. This was the rationale behind the Interstate Certification Project (Keller, 1972; LeSure, 1969; Melare & Davies, 1966; Stinnett, 1971). This agreement, a legislative delegation of power to the state agency to enter into compactual arrangements for certification, provided for interstate contracts to be made between state agencies when certification standards were sufficiently comparable.

Interchange also existed among states that granted reciprocity privileges in the certification of teachers who were graduates of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) accredited institutions (Keller, 1972; Melaro & Davies, 1966; Stinnett, 1971). This meant that if a teacher graduated from a NCATE-approved institution he or she would be approved for certification by the states granting reciprocity privileges.

Three states, Florida, New York, and Washington, took a leadership role in the movement toward competency based certification (Andrews, T. E., 1972a, 1972b). All interested states in competency based certification, along with the competency based teacher education movement, began to shift the criterion for certification away from completion of a prescribed program at an accredited institution to presentation of evidence of particular expertise (Andrews, T. E., 1972a, 1972b; Bush, R. N. & Enemark, P., 1975; Daly, 1970; Rosner, 1973). Candidates were required to hold the baccalaureate degree as testimony to their general education, but they were also expected to deliver a

university transcript that reflected acquired preservice professional competence.

The federal government spent over \$12 million on competency based teacher education projects between August 1967 and January 1973 (Hamilton, 1973). This federal interest in competency based teacher education had, no doubt, been partly responsible for developments in competency based certification at the state level and represented the entry of the federal government into the certification arena.

T. E. Andrews (1972a) gave three reasons why some states were attempting to change to a competency base for certification:

1. to improve teacher education by assuring the actual competence of those given certificates;
2. to improve learning opportunities for children; and
3. to provide a means for making significant changes in all aspects of education. (p. 146)

After a state established its posture in regards to competency based certification, it must then undertake the responsibility for implementing that system. In Florida, New York, and Washington, previously approved approaches to teacher certification continued to exist. Many people who were willing to support the development of competency based certification as an alternative to the present system were opposed to the development of competency based certification as the only method of preparing teachers.

The National Teacher Examinations (NTE) were used as prerequisites to certification in the District of Columbia, Florida, North Carolina, and South Carolina (Aten, 1969/1970; Boozer, 1965; National Teacher Examination, 1965; Stinnett, 1967a, 1967b). The examinations were

usually administered to senior teacher education students prior to completion of the requirements for the baccalaureate degree. The tests which comprised the NTE were intended to evaluate the quality of academic preparation of prospective teachers in three curricular areas: general education, professional education, and field-of-teaching specialization. The Common Examinations were intended to measure knowledge and abilities in the domains of professional and general education common to all teachers regardless of their teaching field. The Teaching Area Examinations were designed to measure the level of special preparation which candidates had made in training for specific teaching positions.

In summary. With changes continuing to occur across the United States, technological developments directly affected teacher education. Personalistic teacher education, based upon the person-oriented method of teaching and learning, and competency based teacher education, founded on the concept that competencies were identifiable skills and abilities that were observable and could be demonstrated and assessed, were approaches used in teacher training programs. The processes of renewal and improvement in teacher certification were broadened; competency based certification gained the forefront. The civil rights movement influenced educational reforms.

Teacher Education in a
Changing World, 1975-1984

In the mid-1970s, the American people had to face the shock of failure and defeat. However much the politicians tried to disguise the

meaning of the end of war in Vietnam, it was in fact a defeat for the United States, the world's most powerful military state (Dubofsky, M., Theoharis, A. & Smith, D. M., 1978). Along with the Vietnam War, which showed to some degree the limits of American power, another event, the loss of the bulk of our foreign oil supplies, revealed America's vulnerability. The nation also had to face scarcity and an energy crisis.

In the face of these frustrations, the American people tried to maintain an affluent and productive society. Yet a paradox seemed to envelop all aspects of the society. As dissatisfaction with cities and industrial life grew at a fast pace, the United States became even more urbanized and industrialized. Over 75 percent of Americans resided in metropolitan areas (Dubofsky, M. et al., 1978), and despite considerable rhetoric praising the advantages of nature, rural society continued to decline. American cities appeared to be less habitable; people fled urban life to the suburbs. It seemed that the more people moved to suburbia, the more suburbia resembled the central city in significant aspects--housing, high rise office buildings, factories, traffic jams, and crime (Dubofsky, M. et al., 1978).

Not only did Americans grow increasingly dissatisfied with the metropolitan existence, a vast majority of them began to question the exploitation of nature's bounty. The United States now faced a decrease in the availability of vital raw materials. Scarcer resources fostered a need for conservation. The ecological movement encouraged the American people to exist in harmony, not in conflict, with nature.

Antipollution measures were demanded in an effort to clean-up the air and water. Americans were asked to help preserve what remained of nature's original domain.

It was debatable how American society would react to these discomforts. With the supply of air, water, and fuel becoming exhaustible, the American spirit would need to remain inexhaustible. Americans would find it a necessity to become less materialistic and more egalitarian as they tried to maintain a viable system of human existence.

These forces of change permeated the bedrock of American society in such a way that the public perceived a need for improvements in all levels of our educational system. Inadequacies in the educational product were cited. Excellence in education was stressed (Burdin, 1975; A Nation at Risk, 1983).

Competence versus Humanism

Throughout the period, no other term generated as much interest, as much confusion, and as much controversy as competency based (Piper & Houston, 1980; Wendel, 1982). Some educators favored the approach with an instructional program designed to identify abilities and skills that were observable and that could be demonstrated and assessed (Dickson, 1979; Piper & Houston, 1980). Other educators felt that the movement that identified specific objectives in observable and measurable terms reduced education to a dehumanizing and mechanistic state (Piper & Houston, 1980; Wendel, 1982). Educators remained divided in their loyalties between the two educational approaches in teacher preparation.

Research and Development in Teacher Education

Educational research was viewed as a kind of social phenomenon that had an explosive growth pattern in the last quarter century (Travers, R. M. W., 1978, Vasudevan, 1976). Research in teacher education was still in its early years. In fact, in 1979, researcher Gene Hall, acting director of the National Institute of Education funded Research and Development Center for Teacher Education in Austin, Texas, wrote that

in very few areas of teacher education are there solid empirical findings or coherent concepts and theories to guide future research efforts. There is a definite need for description, analysis, exploration, mapping, and theory building. (Justiz, 1984, p. 205)

What was of immediate necessity was leadership in identifying and analyzing significant problems in teacher education, supporting research for solving those problems, and translating that research into practical applications.

The basic question was, how do teachers learn to teach? Educators espoused at least two models in attempting to arrive at an answer to that question.

One model described first acquiring a set of basic skills, and then learning how to integrate those skills into teaching strategies (Joyce, 1978; McDonald, 1977). The model assumed that skills were acquired as discrete components of a repertoire of performances and were then integrated into more complex patterns of performance.

A training design built on this conceptualization involved sequential experiences in which the teacher trainee systematically

practiced a particular skill. Over time the trainee acquired a set of such skills and then began to use the repertoire in more complex situations.

A second model stressed that teaching strategies were complexes of performances and decisions that needed to be learned as an integrated set of perceptions, decisions, and actions (McDonald, 1977; Walberg & Waxman, 1983). The teacher trainee used a particular strategy when it seemed appropriate for a particular set of educational goals (Bloom, 1978).

A training design applying this second model involved the trainee in learning the elements of the strategy and practicing its use. Competence in using a particular strategy was to be in evidence. An analysis of the underlying learning processes of children was essential (Dunn, R. S. & Dunn, K. J., 1979; Ehrenberg, 1981; Fischer, B. B. & Fischer, L., 1979; Good, 1983; Shulman, 1981; Travers, R. M. W., 1978; Turner, 1979).

Both types of training models described assumed that acquisition of teaching skills, knowledge, or judgment was additive in character (Griffin, 1983; McDonald, 1977). Each model had limited but significant effectiveness.

These research and development strategies stressed a program in which both training and teacher effectiveness were studied in a school setting as part of an ongoing teacher education program (Good, 1983; Hunter, M., 1984; Koehler, 1983; Shulman, 1981; Walberg & Waxman, 1983). They required that trainers of teachers adopt an inquiry-oriented approach to the training process.

Criteria of evaluation were derived from the conception of teaching as a problem-solving process. The effective problem-solver had skill in identifying or diagnosing problems (Good, 1983). The effective problem-solver also selected a strategy appropriate to the diagnosis. The effective problem-solver possessed a variety of skills for carrying out strategies, used them in different combinations, evaluated the effects of the strategy, and then modified his or her activities accordingly (Bloom, 1978; Cogan, 1975; Griffin, 1983; Shulman, 1981; Tom, 1980; Turner, 1979).

The methodology for estimating whether a teacher trainee could identify or diagnose problems was to interview that trainee on each pupil's attainment in respect to educational goals (Good, 1983; Tabachnick, 1981). A high level of diagnostic skill was manifested by a variety of methods of finding out what children knew or what skills they had acquired, how they were changing their attitudes, and how they felt about their learning experiences (Griffin, 1983; Lochhead, 1981).

To determine if teacher trainees had the skill of selecting a strategy appropriate to their diagnosis of educational goal attainment, two kinds of information were needed (Shulman, 1981). Understand the trainees' choice of a strategy--why was a particular strategy chosen, why did they think that strategy would be effective, and what alternatives were considered. If a particular strategy did not work well, inquire as to the modification of that strategy and to the choice of that modification (Good, 1983). This information was obtained by extensive discussion with the trainees as they elaborated on their own ideas (Good, 1983; Tabachnick, 1981).

When evaluating the quality of the implementation of a particular strategy, the best methodology of evaluation was to observe the trainee in a classroom setting as the strategy was attempted. A high level of skill in implementation was manifested by use of appropriate performance skills as the strategy was tried (Bloom, 1978; Griffin, 1983).

Other performance skills that need to be observed related to material choice (Cogan, 1975; McDonald, 1983; Travers, R. M. W., 1978), instructional organization of the students (Koehler 1983; Smith, B. O., 1979), and questioning of the students by the teacher trainee and response of the trainee to student questions (Berliner, 1984; Bolam, 1977; Katz, 1978). Data generated from the criteria evaluation of the effectiveness of the teacher trainees were used to evaluate different components of a teacher training program.

Writers during the period proposed that teacher education programs needed more emphasis placed upon adapting instruction after initial teaching (Rust & Star, 1977; Tom, 1980). Methods classes were to stress diagnosis and remediation following failure (Rush, R. N., 1977; Howey, 1977; Hunter, M., 1984; Katz, 1978; Monahan, 1977). The training course were to develop the understanding of trainees in a problem-solving and decision-making context for adaption of lesson designs in regards to students' abilities (Burck & Reardon, 1970; Smith, B. O., 1971), relation of lesson content to students' interests (Hunter, M., 1984; Rust & Star, 1977), and classroom management (Applegate, 1977; Brophy, 1983; Krajewski, Mayfield, & Walden, 1979; Walberg & Waxman, 1983).

The major focus of understanding the teaching-learning process in the past was in the examination of the classroom and process-pupil outcome relationships. This research was fruitful and helped to establish principles of effective teaching. During this period, however, teacher effectiveness research, made an important contribution. Results of teacher effectiveness research suggested that it was necessary to consider context variables in teaching practice. No single teaching style was best for all pupils and all objectives (Soar, R. S. & Soar, R. M., 1983). Good (1983) contended that recent research provided clear evidence that teachers do have important effects on students' performance. Teacher training institutions need to give more attention to how their students perceive their role as a teacher and to help prospective teachers develop a teaching philosophy before they enter the classroom. Teachers who have a low expectation for classroom performance are unlikely to positively affect student learning and growth.

Research and development activities continue to furnish a systematic basis for building a body of educational practice (Tom, 1980; Travers, R. M. W., 1978) and an intellectual doctrine for explaining them. They provide a basis for dealing with new problems and improving educational practice (Joncich, 1962; McDonald, 1977; Smith, W. L., 1975; Tabachnick, 1981). They offer a means of program quality control (Bloom, 1978).

Curricular and Instructional Innovations

The curricular innovation of multicultural education was incorporated into the public schools and teacher education programs. Historically, American culture has been pluralistic. Since cultural pluralism is such a basic quality of our culture, it is of necessity that multicultural education has become an integral part of the educational process at every level (Baker, 1977; Gay, 1983; Justiz & Darling, 1980; Mercer, 1983; Mohr, 1977; Olsen, 1977; Webb, 1983).

A culturally diverse society such as ours will experience tension, conflict, and polarization as differences emerge in the course of everyday affairs. Multicultural education can aid in reducing or resolving these problems by encouraging cultural diversity (Arciniega, 1977; Gay, 1983; James, 1980; Mohr, 1977; Webb, 1983), giving each student opportunities to explore and understand his or her own cultural group heritage (Payne, 1980), helping all ethnic groups maintain and be proud of their cultures (Baker, 1977; Gay, 1983), guiding the development of a full and accurate understanding of the mainstream culture (Mercer, 1983; Payne, 1980), and inculcating values consistent with our democratic legacy (Justiz & Darling, 1980; Mohr, 1977).

In 1977, NCATE adopted a revised set of standards (effective on January 1, 1979) for determining the accreditation of teacher education programs which made clear that multicultural education was to permeate various teacher education programs of an institution (Mohr, 1977; Olsen, 1977; Standards for the Accreditation, 1977). The teacher training institutions were asked to incorporate the following multicultural educational components within their programs:

1. Promote analytical and evaluative abilities to confront issues such as participatory democracy, racism and sexism, and the parity of power;
2. Develop skills for values clarification including the study of manifest and latent transmission of values;
3. Examine the dynamics of diverse cultures and the implications for developing teaching strategies; and
4. Examine linguistic variations and diverse learning styles as a basis for the development of appropriate teaching strategies. (Standards for the Accreditation, 1977, p. 4)

A type of instructional system is mainstreaming. Thurman (1980) defined mainstreaming as "a free and appropriate education for all children within the least restrictive educational alternative" (p. 286). The characteristics in evidence in a mainstreamed classroom include the following: (a) the classroom provides for all needs of the child; (b) the child can become a contributing member of the group; (c) the physical facilities of the school are amenable to the child's needs; and (d) the teacher with whom the child is placed understands and accepts him or her ("The Challenge," 1976; Guban, 1979; Linton & Juul, 1980; Merz, 1980; Thurman, 1980; Wynne, Ulfelder & Dakof, 1975). The national law (Public Law 94-142) requires mainstreaming and teaching the handicapped students whenever possible side-by-side with normal students (Saylor, J. G., Alexander, W. M., & Lewis, A. J., 1981). Central to the success of any classroom, but especially a mainstreamed classroom, is "a skilled and sensitive teacher" (Dunlop, 1979, p. 29).

Learning, like all other experiencing and behaving, is an active process which results from the efforts of a person to satisfy a need (Beck, 1978; Brown, S. I., 1982; Combs, 1978; McNergney, 1980). What a

person learns in a given situation is determined by the relationship of his or her need to the experiences of the moment. Learning is often defined as the discovery of personal meaning; thusly comes the term, individualized learning (briefly mentioned in period 1965-1975).

In essence, in individualized instruction, students are allowed to pursue a course of study consistent with their aptitudes, abilities, motivations, and interests, and at the speed at which they can absorb learning (Arnsdorf, 1977; Beck, 1978; Bush, R. N., 1977; Joncich, 1962; Krajewski et al., 1970; McNergney, 1980; Rust & Star, 1977; Thayer, 1981).

In order to make certain that individualized learning became an educational reality, devices were fashioned to allow students not only to pursue the field of study of their choice at the pace at which they could learn, but also up to an appropriate degree of intensity of learning to which they could take it. This is what programmed instruction attempts to do. Various individualized systems of instruction, i.e., Individually Guided Education, Individually Prescribed Instruction, Individualized Educational Programs, or Personalized Teacher Education (Cogan, 1975; Mitzel, 1977; Smith, B. O., 1979; Tom, 1980), aid in developing plans for dealing realistically with learning variations among individual students in a classroom.

Computerized instruction provides another form of individualized programmed instruction (Foell, 1983; Friedman, D., 1983; Henderson, 1978; Hunter, E., 1983; Huntington, 1980, 1981; Travers, R. M. W., 1978). The computer assisted instruction (CAI) programs can ask

questions and adjust their responses to the needs and abilities of the user in a manner that students can regard as positive and supportive.

Although introduced during the late 1960s and early 1970s, it was not until the 1980s that educators recognized the implications of the widespread use of computers within our society. Many educators advocated that computer literacy was as essential as the basic skills (Anderson, C. A., 1983; Dearborn, 1983; Foell, 1983; Hunter, E., 1983; Uhlig, 1983). C. A. Anderson (1983) proposed that a computer-literate person should have the following skills:

1. The ability to program and control a computer for personal, academic, and professional goals;
 2. The ability to use a variety of computer-applications software within a personal, academic, and professional context;
 3. The ability to understand the increasing social, economic and psychological impacts that computers are having on groups and individuals; and
 4. The ability to make use of ideas from computer programming and computer applications as part of an individual's strategy for retrieving information, communicating, and problem solving.
- (p. 6)

Teacher training institutions were forced to address the many issues associated with the developing informational technologies. Teacher trainees had to become knowledgeable about and competent in educational computing (Anderson, C. A., 1983; Daniels, 1982; Foell, 1983; Friedman, D., 1983; Hunter, E., 1983; Milner, 1980; Reynolds & Simpson, 1980; Uhlig, 1983). Computer experience was to be provided through courses in programming, courseware design, and educational application for teacher trainees (Anderson, C. A., 1983; Friedman, D. 1983; Milner, 1983).

Toward the end of this period there was a resurgence of interest in restructuring teacher education programs. Such programs would facilitate a gradual, systematic, and guided induction into the profession of teaching. The relation of theory to practice in the programs would be understandable to all. For the programs to be successful, a carefully planned and closely articulated sequence of experiences would be required both in the field and on campus.

Interest in restructuring teacher education programs has centered mainly in extending the training program beyond four years of undergraduate study. Some proposals for an extended program appear to deal primarily with form rather than substance. However, qualitative improvement must begin with the identification of the knowledge and skills that students of teaching are not now learning that are vital to their professional practice (Smith, B. O., 1980). Formulation of an extended program would include a description of the capabilities needed by beginning teachers and a program outline of content and activities needed to produce such a graduate. Meeting certification standards would be inherent in the extended program. Upon completion of the fifth year of study and field experiences, a master's degree would be awarded. The focus would be on the ability to do the job for which the training is given.

Transitional Influences in Teacher Education

The educational system of the United States is not the result of careful planning and designing. Rather, it has grown in response to

changing societal conditions and shifting social values (Burdin, 1975; Cogan, 1975; Monohan, 1977; Riggs, R. O. & Lewis, W. L., 1980; Shane, 1975). Much of the system has resulted by historical accident. Accordingly, our educational system at all levels will continue to modify and to change.

Because of public outcry concerning inadequacies in our educational system, the quality of education emerged as a national priority (A Nation at Risk, 1983). Teacher education, as a part of our educational system, was faced with mandates for improvements and reform.

State and federal governments moved in response to public dissatisfaction with schools and teachers. More and more, the tendency was for state and federal legislatures to lay down directions, policies, programs, and even curricular content for schools and teacher education institutions (Howsam, 1980; Travers, E. F., 1980; Wingo, 1977).

States used their influence to provide leadership, but, more importantly, they used their power. States varied in their constitutional authorization over educational matters, and that affected the amount of actual power they had. Most states exerted control over teacher education policies through their rules and regulations governing teacher certification (Clark, D. L. & Marker, G., 1975; Hosman, Corrigan, Denemark, & Nash, 1976).

The federal government influenced teacher training by making funds available through competitive grants or contracts (Davies, 1975; Haberman, 1975; Howsam et al., 1976). The purpose of the federal funding was to improve certain practices or conditions. Although no one

was coerced into participating, the federal government used these funds to influence policy development at the state and local levels.

Through union activities (Donley, 1976; Ervay, 1979; Howsam et al., 1976) the organized teaching profession exerted real pressure for changes in programs of teacher education. Professional strength was a compelling influence on the state department machinery for accrediting programs and certifying teachers (Berneman, 1977; Bush, R. N. & Enemark, P., 1975; Davies, 1975; Ervay, 1979; Howey, 1977; Howsam, 1980; Howsam et al., 1976). This resulted in many states assigning policy making functions once vested in the DOE administrators to duly appointed boards representing teachers and their constituent groups. The function of approving teacher education programs offered by all colleges within a state was one of the major functions of such boards.

Controlling the conditions of student teaching was another kind of pressure exerted by teaching organizations (Clark, D. L. & Marker, G., 1975; Davies, 1975; Ervay, 1979; Howey, 1977; Howsam et al., 1976). As the shortage of jobs became the normal condition, teacher groups were increasingly concerned with job security and wished to establish quotas limiting the number of student teachers on a school-by-school basis. Related areas included control over who served as cooperating teachers, the nature of their preparation, and the amount of the stipends that they received for working with student teachers.

Other changes resulting from professional organizations and unions included negotiating contracts bilaterally between public school systems and colleges of education (Bush, R. N., 1977; Clark D. L. & Marker, G.,

1975; Schlechty, George, & Whitford, 1978; Smith, B. O., 1983), making direct input into the policies and curricula of teacher training programs (Clark, D. L. & Marker, G., 1975; Howsam et al., 1976; Wingo, 1977), and competing for educational finances (Clark, D. L. & Marker, G., 1975; Wingo, 1977).

Interdisciplinary interaction and cooperation among university faculties and college of education departments enhanced revitalization of teacher education curricula (Burdin, 1975; Howey, 1977; Katz, 1978; Shane, 1975; Travers, E. F., 1980). When attempted, modifications and changes occurred most in the way subjects and disciplines were organized for instructional purposes (Shane, 1975) and in the way courses were taught within professional sequences (Clark, D. L. & Marker, G., 1975; Cogan, 1975; Smith, B. O., 1983; Travers, E. F., 1980).

In summary. The mid-1970s brought discomforts--fuel and resource scarcity, energy crisis, antipollution measures for our air and water--to American society. Dissatisfaction with education and teacher education also occurred. Multicultural education, mainstreaming, and individualized and computerized instruction were being tried in education. The state and federal governments and teacher organizations and unions, along with university and college of education faculties, influenced modifications and changes in programs of teacher preparation.

CHAPTER THREE HISTORY OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN FLORIDA

This history of teacher education in Florida follows the divisions of time that designate prominent periods or eras in the history of the growth and development of the State of Florida.

Florida Teacher Education during Colonial Times through the Civil War Era

Before Florida became a part of the United States in 1821, it had been occupied by Spain, the British Empire, and Spain once again (Adams, 1962/1963; Bristol, undated; Pyburn, 1951). Each change of government affected the character of education. Under each government, education was controlled and operated by an established church. Teachers were certified by the civil and ecclesiastical authorities (Florida Territorial Statutes, 1834; Pyburn, 1951). The content of education, when under the auspices of the Roman Catholic Church because of Spanish domination of the area, was reading, writing, arithmetic, the Christian (Catholic) doctrine, prayers, and litanies in the Spanish language. The aim, content, and methods used were dictated by decrees. Under English occupation, education, as controlled by the Anglican Church, was for religion and virtue, and taught in the English language; regulations determined educational aims and content.

Educational Development in Territorial Florida

The United States Government ratified the purchase of Florida from Spain in early 1821 (Adams, 1962/1963; Bristol, undated; Pyburn, 1951). In March 1822, Congress established a territorial government for Florida. Florida, as is true of many other states, was carved from a territory.

Although the Federal Government did not assume responsibility for education, it encouraged it by reserving land during the territorial period and giving it to the state upon admission to the Union for common schools and seminaries of learning (Adams, 1962/1963; Bristol, undated; Public Statutes, 1823; Pyburn, 1954). Florida's share of the land for education and control of it during the territorial period was stated in three statutes of the United States. In 1823, Congress reserved an entire township of land "in each of the districts of East and West Florida" (Public Statutes, 1823, p. 756) for a seminary of learning. In 1826, the Federal Government directed that the sixteenth section of each township in all territories be reserved for common schools (Public Statutes, 1827); this included Florida. In 1827, Congress passed an act which empowered the Governor and the Legislative Council of the Territory to take possession of the land reserved for the use of schools and for a seminary of learning. They were instructed to lease the land yearly; "and the money rising from the rent of said lands shall be appropriated to the use of schools and to the erection of a seminary of learning, in such manner as they may direct" (Public Statutes, 1827, pp. 201-202).

In 1828, an act was passed concerning the management of the school lands. It provided that three persons in each county be appointed by the Governor and the Territorial Council to be trustees of the school lands. The money coming from the seminary lands was to be turned over to the secretary of the treasury, and that from the common school lands was to be applied to the education of the children within each township from which the money was collected. Several acres of the sixteenth section were to serve as the sites for a school house, meeting house, and other structures for use in worship. The trustees were to have 5 percent of the money collected as pay for their time and effort (Florida Territorial Statutes, 1828).

The disposition of the common school land was considered a county concern; the disposition of the seminary land was a state concern. Establishing upon the land a seminary of learning for rich and poor alike was advocated in order to encourage a basis for individual achievement and to insure a democratic form of government.

During 1827, 1828, and 1829, the register of lands and his agent were busily locating the seminary lands. In 1827 and 1828, R. J. Hackley, the register, listed lands to be reserved for sale for a seminary of learning in the Territory of Florida. In September 1829, R. C. Allen, the agent for locating lands to be selected east and west of the Apalachicola River for a seminary of learning, wrote to Governor William P. Duval concerning the matter (State Department of Agriculture, 1827-1860). He suggested that it might be in the best interest of the territory to wait for further locations until the U. S. Supreme Court

adjudicated private claims by the Spanish government. After contemplation of the suggestion, Governor Duval advised Allen to discontinue selecting seminary lands (State Department of Agriculture, 1827-1860). The location of the seminary lands was resumed again in 1844 (State Department of Agriculture, 1827-1860).

In 1831, the Florida Education Society organized a free public school, supported by subscription, in Tallahassee and in St. Johns and Mosquito counties (Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933). Even with the encouragement of this society, the enthusiasm subsided and little educational advances were sustained. It was not until 1845, when Florida became a state, that legal provisions were made for the establishment of a state system of common schools.

State Seminaries of Higher Learning

Florida made legal provisions for and put into operation two seminaries of learning between 1845 and 1860. Upon becoming a state in 1845, Florida was granted two more townships of land, in addition to the township already reserved, as further endowments of two seminaries of learning, specifying that one was to be located on the east side and one on the west side of the Suwannee River (Adams, 1962/1963; Bristol, undated; Public Statutes, 1845; Pyburn, 1951, 1954; Simmons, 1933). There was little discussion of the seminaries by the legislators until the laws concerning common schools were passed.

In 1846 and 1847, the legislature enacted a law that replaced the trustees of the seminary lands with the register of public lands. This

was a basic step toward a single system of education and was a move toward consolidation and centralization of the common school fund and the seminary funds (Chipman, 1972/1973; Florida Statutes, 1846, 1847).

In 1851, a bill was passed by the legislature providing for the establishment of two seminaries of learning (Adams, 1962/1963; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933). The primary purpose of the seminaries was to give instruction in the art of teaching to male and female students (Bristol, undated; Florida Statutes, 1851; Pyburn, 1951, 1954; Simmons, 1933). This was reflected in the statements of aims, in the rules governing admission, and in the provisions for training and certifying teachers. Those making application for entrance were to possess a good moral character and a capacity to make an apt and good teacher. Those who would sign a declaration of intention to follow the business of teaching in the primary schools in the state were not to pay fees and tuition. The board of education of each seminary was instructed to establish an experimental school in connection with the seminary (Florida Statutes, 1851).

The next legislature, 1852-53, located the seminary east of the Suwannee River at Ocala (Adams, 1962/1963; Bristol, undated; Pyburn, 1951, 1954; Simmons, 1933; Wainwright, 1914). The West Florida Seminary was established at Tallahassee in 1857 (Adams, 1962/1963; Pyburn, 1951, 1954; Simmons, 1933; Wainwright, 1914). The delay in locating the West Florida Seminary was due to controversies concerning application of the appropriated seminary money to common schools and to questions over whether the state could support two seminaries of learning. Little

information was available concerning these two seminaries of learning from the date of their establishment to the close of the Civil War (Goulding, 1933).

The two seminaries made little progress. The state was sparsely populated. Immigration was slow in developing. Fear of Indians was prevalent. There were only a few adequate roads. No organized system of public improvement existed.

During 1855, the legislature passed a bill to encourage and provide internal improvements within the state. The resulting period of road and railroad construction was curtailed by the Civil War. During the Civil War, the seminaries fought courageously to maintain their operation; the East Florida Seminary had to close for two years.

In 1861, the West Florida Seminary was placed on military and collegiate status. Because of low enrollment, the East Florida Seminary was moved from Ocala to Gainesville in 1866. By the end of 1869, however, both seminaries were operated by private parties. A beginning had occurred in higher education but growth was retarded. No more public institutions of higher learning were established before 1884.

Teacher Certification

When the first school legislation was passed in 1849, provision was made to establish a system of public education in Florida. The authorization which established the common schools for all white children between the ages of five and eighteen also designated that the administration of the system was to be entrusted to the register of the

land office who was to act as state superintendent of public instruction, to the judges of probate who were to act as superintendents of schools of their respective counties, and to the local board of trustees of the various school districts (Pyburn, 1951; Selman, 1956). It was the duty of the state superintendent of public instruction to examine and certify teachers.

The Florida Statutes (1851) did provide for any person who attended either of the two seminaries for 22 weeks to be examined in the studies required by the state board of education (BOE). If it appeared to the state BOE that the person possessed the learning and other qualifications necessary to teach a good common school, that person would receive a certificate to teach.

Florida Teacher Education in the Era of Reconstruction, 1864-1876

Florida seceded from the Union on January 10, 1861. Neither the Constitution of the Confederate States nor the Florida Constitution of 1861 included a provision designed to change the character of education existing prior to their enactment. During the war years, education within the state remained much the same.

Educational Development during the Reconstruction Period

With readmission to the Union, Florida adopted a new state constitution. The Constitution of 1868 declared that the legislature should provide for a uniform system of schools and for a university within the state (Adams, 1962/1963; Chipman, 1972/1973; Goulding, 1933;

Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933; Wainwright, 1914). In addition, the constitution provided for the creation of the office of the state superintendent of public instruction (Adams, 1962/1963; Chipman, 1972/1973; Goulding, 1933; Selman, 1956). He or She was to be appointed for a four-year term by the Governor and was to be confirmed by the Senate. Provision was also made for a state BOE which would consist of the state superintendent of public instruction, secretary of state, and state attorney general. The duties of the BOE were to be prescribed by law.

In 1869, the first workable school law was passed. The school law of 1869 also authorized and directed the state BOE to provide for the preparation of teachers (Adams, 1962/1963; Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933). Among the first steps employed were the establishment of model schools in various parts of the state and the offering of teacher education courses by the best primary and secondary schools. In this connection, Florida was greatly assisted by the Peabody Education Fund (Bush, G. G., 1889; Cochran, 1921; Simmons, 1933; Wainwright, 1914; White, A. O., 1979).

An examination of reports from the U. S. Office of Education in 1875, indicated that the state seminaries were essentially local public schools giving primary, preparatory, and secondary school work. Their curricula included Greek, Latin, chemistry, natural philosophy, astronomy, and all the higher branches of arithmetic (U. S. Office of Education, 1875).

Edward Waters College, in Jacksonville, was founded in 1866 as the Brown Technical Institute when the Reverend Charles H. Pierce, first presiding elder of the African Methodist Episcopal Church of Florida, began to raise funds for a school (American Council on Education, 1983; "Narrative Descriptions," 1981). It was the first institution of higher learning for blacks in Florida. The institution was chartered in 1872, and its name was changed to Brown University in 1874. In 1891, instruction at the postsecondary level was first available, and its present name was adopted. Teacher training courses were a part of the curricula. In 1980, the first baccalaureate degree was awarded.

Teacher Certification

In 1869, definite laws, providing for the licensing of teachers in the state, were passed (Goulding, 1933; Putney, 1968/1969; Pyburn, 1951; Selman, 1956). Among the duties of the state superintendent of public instruction, the law prescribed that he or she was to issue certificates to graduates of a training program (department of teaching) and was to establish the grades and standards of the qualifications of teachers (Florida Statutes, 1869; Goulding, 1933; Pyburn, 1951; Selman, 1956).

The law stated that only persons who had been examined and certified could teach in the state. The examination of teaching candidates was the duty of the county board of education and of the county superintendent when authorized by the county board. An examination was given in "reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, geography, and English grammar" (Selman, 1956, p. 2) to a prospective teacher.

Certificates were granted by the county board and the state superintendent of public instruction. The certificates issued by the county were valid for only one year in the county in which they were given. The certificates granted by the state superintendent of public instruction were good in any part of the state but only for the time specified. Selman (1956) noted that three grades of certificates were granted but that there was no record of the exact standards that were required.

Florida Teacher Education in the Era of Redemption, 1876-1900

From the beginning of the reconstruction period, more and more emphasis was placed on the training of teachers. This was not surprising since the first purpose of the seminaries, according to the bill (Florida Statutes, 1851) creating them, was to give instruction in the art of teaching. It was after the Civil War that a consciousness of the need for teacher education was awakened in Florida. With the growth and improvement of the state common school system from 1877 to 1885, attention was focused by local, county, and state officials, and school patrons on teacher training (Adams, 1962/1963; Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933).

Creation of Normal Departments in the State Seminaries

Governor George F. Drew assumed office in January 1877, and he appointed William P. Haisley as state superintendent of public instruction. Haisley worked to qualify Florida schools for the Peabody

Fund(s). This fund was established by a northern philanthropist George Peabody to combat illiteracy in the South. The conditions on which this aid, \$300 to any white school and \$200 to any black school, was given were that the schools should have an enrollment of 100 students each, a teacher for every 50 pupils, an average attendance of not less than 80 percent of the number enrolled, and a ten month term (White, A. O., 1979). From 1868 to 1884, Florida received several thousand dollars from the fund and used a large part of the money received in taking the initiatory steps for training teachers.

Beginning in 1877, provision was made through the Peabody Fund for three two-year scholarships for Florida teachers in the normal department of Nashville University, Nashville, Tennessee (Adams, 1962/1963; Bush, G. G., 1889; Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933; White, A. O., 1979). Two years later the scholarships were increased by five, and in 1880, the number was increased to ten; each scholarship was equal to \$200 annually. In 1881-82, State Superintendent Eleazar K. Foster reported that teacher training was the primary object of the Peabody trustees.

In 1880, the East Florida Seminary reported that a normal course which extended three years beyond the preparatory course of two years was organized (Adams, 1962/1963; Bush, G. G., 1889; Cochran, 1921; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933). In 1883, a similar training school was established in the West Florida Seminary. These normal departments were open to any white person of good moral character, over 15 years of age, properly prepared, and intending to teach. Free tuition was offered to

all who would pledge to remain in the departments for two years, and, after that time, teach in the schools of Florida for at least two years. In addition to other studies, the normal school course included methods of teaching, school organization and management, history and philosophy of education, and educational psychology (Goulding, 1933). In 1883, the legislature passed a bill giving additional appropriations for definite normal instruction in the two seminaries (Florida Statutes, 1883).

Normal Departments in Other State Institutions

The Constitution of 1868 of the State of Florida declared that the legislature should provide for a uniform system of schools and a university (Adams, 1962/1963; Chipman, 1972/1973; Goulding, 1933; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933; Wainwright, 1914). In conformity with this provision, the Florida University was organized in February 1883, with two colleges, the literary and the medical. The literary college was the West Florida Seminary which retained its separate charter and special organization as to trustees and endowments. The medical college was the Tallahassee College of Medicine and Surgery. In addition, the university charter recognized a college of law, a theological institute, and a polytechnic and normal institute.

Only two of the colleges, the literary and the medical, were ever operated. In 1885, the Medical College was moved to Jacksonville, and the literary department was no longer mentioned after the West Florida Seminary announcements of 1885-1886 (Adams, 1962/1963; Dodd, 1945).

"Almost from the onset, therefore, the University had no existence except in name" (Bush, G. G., 1889, p. 47).

In February 1870, the legislature passed an act to establish the Florida Agricultural College (Florida Statutes, 1870). In 1884, the college was located in Lake City (Adams, 1962/1963; Bush, G. G., 1889; Cochran, 1921; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933). In 1899, a teacher training department was opened in the college (Bristol, undated; Goulding, 1933; Pyburn, 1951). The legislature changed the name of the institution to the University of Florida in 1903 (Adams, 1962/1963; Bristol, undated; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933).

In 1884, shortly after A. J. Russell became state superintendent of public instruction, additional provisions were made for the training of black teachers in high schools. Normal work was included in the curricula of Lincoln Academy in Tallahassee and Union Academy at Gainesville. Three years earlier these two schools were given \$300 each by the state since blacks were not allowed to receive scholarships from the Peabody Fund (Haisley, 1881; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933).

Normal Departments in Private Institutions

Rollins College, located at Winter Park, was established and opened for students in 1885 (Bush, G. G., 1889; Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Wainwright, 1914). The original plan divided the college into a classical and scientific department, a preparatory department, a training school for teachers, and an industrial arts school. This plan was followed until June 1887, when the normal school and the primary

grades were abolished (Bush, G. G., 1889; Wainwright, 1914). Teacher training was offered again in 1895.

DeLand Academy was founded in 1883, was chartered by the legislature as DeLand University in 1887, and had its name changed to John B. Stetson University in 1889 (Bush, G. G., 1889; Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Wainwright, 1914). In 1885-1886, the normal course replaced the higher English course. This one year of normal training was either in place of or in addition to the third year of work.

In 1886, the Florida Conference College was established at Leesburg (Bush, G. G., 1889; Cochran, 1921; Wainwright, 1914). Normal training was offered in 1896. The college was closed in 1899. It reopened at Orlando as Southern College in 1906. The college was moved to Lakeland in 1922, and the name was changed to Florida Southern College in 1935.

In 1885, Shelton College, at Cape Canaveral, was founded by the International Council of Christian Churches ("Narrative Descriptions," 1981). Training in elementary education was offered by this liberal arts institution.

Saint Leo College, at Saint Leo, was chartered and established in 1889 as Saint Leo Military Academy by the Roman Catholic Church (American Council on Education, 1983). In 1930, the name was changed to the Saint Leo Preparatory School. In 1956, its present name was adopted, and instruction at the post secondary level was first available. The first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1967. Preparation of teachers for early childhood, elementary, secondary, and special education was a part of the B. A. degree program.

Establishment of State Normal Schools and Normal Colleges

In 1887, legislative provision was made for the organization of two normal schools or colleges, one for each race (Florida Statutes, 1887). The one for whites, officially named the State Normal School for White Students, was located at DeFuniak Springs. The one for blacks, at first named the State Normal College for Colored Students but, after 1890, designated the Florida State Normal and Industrial college for Colored Students, was located at Tallahassee (Adams, 1962/1963; Bristol, undated; Bush, G. G., 1889; Cochran, 1921; Pyburn, 1951; Simmons, 1933). In the one for whites, there were two departments, a preparatory department and a normal department. One year of study was required for the preparatory department, and work was completed in common school branches and in preparation for normal courses. Course work in the normal department required two years for completion and included instruction in methods of teaching, school organization, and school management, and other subjects deemed necessary for efficient teaching in Florida schools. The black normal college was organized in the same manner and with similar courses in instruction. In 1891, two other departments, an agricultural department and an industrial department, were added to both schools.

Private Normal Schools and Normal Colleges

The Florida Normal school and Business Institute, located at White Springs, was established early in the 1880s, and incorporated by the legislature in 1887 (Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Pyburn, 1951). The

act of incorporation provided that whenever the courses offered in a school met the approval of the proper state authorities, the graduates holding diplomas from the classical or the scientific courses would be qualified to teach in the state common schools, and the diplomas would be the equivalent of a teaching certificate (Florida Statutes, 1887). In 1889, the legislature made a donation to the school of \$5,000 for use as free tuition in the literary department for one person from each senatorial district. In return, the school educated teachers free of tuition.

In Jasper, the Jasper Normal Institute was opened in 1890 (Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Pyburn, 1951). The teachers' course covered two years of work, and included pedagogical studies--history of education, philosophy of education, and the theory and practice of teaching. A model primary school was maintained.

According to State Superintendent W. N. Sheats, graduates from both normal schools were in much demand as teachers. In 1894, they had "100 percent more students successfully conducting public schools . . . than any two schools dependent upon State appropriations" (Sheats, 1895, p. 51).

In 1894, the Saint Petersburg Normal and Industrial School was opened as an outgrowth of a local public school in the city of Saint Petersburg (Goulding, 1933). The 1901 legislature passed a law which provided an appropriation of \$10,000 to this institution to help maintain a normal and industrial department for two years (Florida Statutes, 1901). This state aid was conditional; each member of the

state Senate and House was permitted to select one person under the state BOE regulations between 16-25 years old to receive free instruction in the normal department of the school (Bristol, undated; Cochran, 1921; Simmons, 1933). In addition, free instruction in the normal department was available to all students who expected to teach in Florida. In 1903, the legislature appropriated \$15,000 for the maintenance of the normal and industrial courses in the school (Florida Statutes, 1903). Under the name of pedagogy, theory and practice teaching, psychology, school management, and history were offered (Goulding, 1933).

The Florida Education Association

When the Florida Chautauqua assembled at DeFuniak Springs in March 1886, educational leaders in Florida formed a statewide organization known as the Florida State Teachers Association (Florida Education Association, 1958; Putney, 1968/1969). In December 1906, an issue of the Florida School Exponent referred to the organization for the first time as the Florida Education Association (FEA) (Florida Education Association, 1958). The FEA was organized to promote the welfare of the students and teachers in the Florida public schools. A symposium on teacher education met at the annual conventions of the association. Through this symposium and related activities, FEA influenced teacher education in the state.

Teacher Certification

Under a law of 1883, any person graduating from the normal department of four state institutions, the Seminaries of East and West Florida, Lincoln Academy at Tallahassee, and Union Academy at Gainesville, was to receive a certificate. This certificate was equivalent to a teacher's certificate.

In 1889, a school law which made no substantial changes in the provisions for certification enacted in the 1869 school law was passed (Chipman, 1972/1973; Florida Statutes, 1889). The state superintendent of public instruction prescribed the requirements for the various grades of certificates, first, second, and third.

To qualify for a third-grade certificate, an applicant was examined in reading, writing, elementary arithmetic, spelling, primary geography, United States and Florida history, physiology and hygiene, and the theory and practice of teaching. An average score of 75 percent correct was necessary for issuance of the certificate.

An applicant for a second-grade certificate was examined over the third-grade branches and, additionally, in complete arithmetic, advanced geography, English grammar and composition, outlines of general history, and the elements of bookkeeping. An average score of 80 percent correct was required for issuance of the certificate.

An applicant for a first-grade certificate was to be a graduate of a normal school or an approved college, who was not examined, or a successful teacher who had a second-grade certificate and who could, on examination, answer correctly 85 percent of the questions that were submitted on high school subjects of the period.

In addition, an applicant for any teaching certificate was to produce satisfactory evidence of maintaining a good moral character and of "possessing the art of imparting instruction" (Sheats, 1895, p. 79).

In 1893, a law that created a state uniform system of examination and certification was enacted which superseded the law of 1889 (Florida Statutes, 1893). The law provided for the granting of six kinds of certificates--third-grade, second-grade, first-grade, state, state life, and primary life. Issuance of the first three certificates was by the county superintendent, but only upon examination given in specified subjects and held on specified days with all examinations to be on questions prepared and distributed by the state superintendent and with the papers of all examinees graded by a committee of three leading teachers selected by the county BOE (Cochran, 1921). These three certificates were good for one, two, and three years, respectively, only in the county of issuance, except the first-grade certificate which was good in any county when it was endorsed by the superintendent of that county. A teacher could be granted no more than one third-grade certificate nor more than two second-grade certificates.

The other three certificates, state, state life, and primary life, were only used by the state superintendent and were valid in any part of the state (Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Putney, 1968/1969; Selman, 1956). The state certificate was issued for five years to persons who had 24 months of experience in teaching and had taught at least eight months in Florida under a first-grade certificate. The state life certificate was issued only to eminently successful teachers who had

taught 30 months in a high school of the state under a state certificate, and who were endorsed by three persons holding state certificates. The primary life certificate was issued only to eminently successful primary teachers who had taught three years in the state.

The law provided that any of the six kinds of certificates could be revoked by the authority who granted it whenever the holder could be proven to be unsuccessful, incompetent, or immoral.

In 1895, the legislature amended the 1893 certification law (Florida Statutes, 1895). The third- and second-grade certificates were good for two and three years, respectively, and reissuable indefinitely. The provision for the primary life certificate was canceled; however, there was no invalidation of the primary life certificates already issued. The second-grade certificates were good in any county when they were endorsed by the superintendent of that county. Without examination, a first-grade certificate was granted to any graduate from either of the state normal schools.

In summary. Teacher training in Florida emerged in conjunction with the growth and improvement of the system of common schools. The establishment of normal schools and normal colleges climaxed the teacher education surge from 1885 to 1892. Certification was used to improve teaching. The uniform teacher certification examination law of 1893 was one of the most important single factors to influence the development of the Florida state system of education during this period.

Florida Teacher Education during the Building of the
Florida State Public Education System, 1900-1929

Throughout this period, Florida was in the process of developing a state public education system. W. N. Sheats, state superintendent of public instruction, demonstrated that he viewed the development of a state system of public education as important. Sheats advocated enforcement of state standards to improve organization and performance, uniformity of procedures, centralization of educational control, fiscal responsibility in administrators, competence and initiative in teachers, and the involvement of citizens as ways to improve the state school system (Sheats, 1905).

In 1904, W. M. Holloway was elected as state superintendent of public instruction. Holloway continued the policy of trying to transform the unwieldy loose association of the district schools into a state system. With the help of the state rural school inspector, George M. Lynch, Holloway devised a system of classifying the state high schools as first-, second-, and third-class, a classification system unique to Florida (White, A. O., 1979).

Governor Napoleon Broward opened the 1907 legislature with a long list of proposed educational reforms: state uniformity of textbooks, a constitutional amendment to raise state tax revenue for higher education, better qualified and better paid teachers, a child labor law, and a compulsory education law (White, A. O., 1979).

In 1915, the County School Officers convention called for the revision of the state course of study, issuance of state certificates to graduates of accredited normal courses, a commission of educators to be

responsible for adopting a state textbook list, a two-mile limit for transportation of pupils, and teachers' pensions (White, A. O., 1979).

Sheats became state superintendent of public instruction again in 1912 and served until his death in July 1922. W. S. Cawthon, Sheats' close friend and designated successor, took over as state superintendent. Cawthon recommended to the state legislature a program of granting teaching certificates to college graduates without examination, of appropriations for high school teacher training departments, of consolidation of rural high schools, of a state survey of public schools, and of a revision of the state course of study (Chipman, 1972/1973; Cochran, 1921; White, A. O., 1979).

In 1928, a state survey committee headed by George D. Strayer (Strayer, 1929) recommended that the Governor appoint the state BOE who would be responsible for appointing an outstanding educator as commissioner of education. The commissioner would head a department of education (DOE) which would be expanded to include divisions of elementary education, secondary education, vocational education, and black education. Other personnel needed included directors of research and statistics; school buildings; finance to supervise local boards; census and attendance; and teacher examination, certification, and placement. The committee report also recommended the replacement of certification of teachers by examination with certification on the basis of college training. Preoccupied as they were with a sudden economic downturn, the 1929 legislature endorsed only the survey recommendation of a state director of school buildings (Chipman, 1972/1973; White, A. O., 1979).

Teacher Education in State Institutions

Governor Francis P. Fleming voiced doubts concerning the wisdom of so many public institutions in the state, the two seminaries, the agricultural college, and the two normal schools/colleges. He suggested that a single state university might effectively accomplish more than the institutions in existence. With the increasing opposition to the multiplication of the state-supported schools, strong appeals in favor of consolidating the institutions began to grow.

In 1905, the state legislature passed the Buckman Act (Florida Statutes, 1905). This bill abolished all existing white schools of higher learning and in their place provided for one institution of higher learning east of the Suwannee River and one institution of higher learning west of the Suwannee River (Adams, 1962/1963; Bristol, undated; Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Proctor, 1958; Simmons, 1933; Wainwright, 1914). Coeducation in the newly created white institutions was abolished. Both institutions were to be managed by a board of control operating under the state BOE. Normal departments were created for each institution.

By placing the institutions east and west of the Suwannee River, it allowed the use of the interest on the seminary funds. By establishing the normal departments in each institution, it satisfied the provision in the state constitution for the establishment of normal schools. Nothing was lost in the way of former endowments by abolishing the existing state institutions and in creating the two new schools, one for male students and for one female students. The bill did away with all

existing jealousies and with the desire of each institution to outdo the other (Simmons, 1933).

Established by this bill were the University of the State of Florida (combining the East Florida Seminary in Gainesville and the University of Florida in Lake City) and the Florida Female College (combining the West Florida Seminary, whose name was changed in 1901 to the Florida State College [Bristol, undated; Wainwright, 1914], in Tallahassee and the State Normal School for White Students at DeFuniak Springs). As a black school, the Florida State Normal and Industrial College for Colored Students in Tallahassee remained in existence.

At the first meeting of the board of control of higher education in 1905, selection of the locations of the newly created institutions was made (Adams, 1962/1963; Proctor, 1958). By a unanimous vote, the Florida Female College was located at Tallahassee. By a vote of 6-4, the University of the State of Florida was located in Gainesville (Adams, 1962/1963; Proctor, 1958); however, the scholastic year, 1905-1906, was held in Lake City and then the institution was moved to Gainesville (Wainwright, 1914).

In 1909, the name of the University of the State of Florida was changed to the University of Florida, the name of the Florida Female College was changed to the Florida State College for Women, and the name of the Florida State Normal and Industrial College for Colored Students was changed to the Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes (Florida Statutes, 1909).

University of Florida. As a matter of convenience, the development of teacher education at the University of Florida during this era can be divided into three periods--1905-1912, 1912-1920, and 1920-1929. The first period, 1905-1912, was a period of transition and adjustment in which a foundation was laid for the building of a teacher training program.

The School of Pedagogy was first directed by W. F. Yocum in 1905; John A. Thackston succeeded him as director in 1909. The bachelor of arts in pedagogy degree was a four-year program. Curriculum emphasis was placed on preparation for the teachers' examinations. In 1910, the university organization was changed, and the Department of Education was created in the College of Arts and Sciences (Goulding, 1933). A person completing the first year could pass the examination for a first-grade certificate, and one completing the last two years could pass the examination for a state certificate (University Record, 1911).

The second period, 1912-1920, was characterized by the creating of the Teachers College (Goulding, 1933; Wainwright, 1914) and in raising the quality of course work offered. In 1913, the Teachers College and Normal School were housed in Peabody Hall, a gift of the trustees of the Peabody Fund (Holloway, 1912). John A. Thackston served as the first dean; in 1916, he was replaced by Harvey W. Cox.

The degrees, a bachelor of arts and a bachelor of science in education, were offered in the Teachers College. For the B. A. degree, a majority of the elective courses had to be from the language and philosophy groups; for the B. S. degree, the majority had to be from the

science group. Basic course work in the Teachers College included elementary psychology, methods of study, school management and supervision, history of education, principles and philosophy of education, child study, and practice teaching (University Record, 1913).

In the Normal School at the University of Florida, four curricula were offered: a spring review course and a one-year course, both of which covered the contents and methods of teaching; a two-year elementary course, that covered methods of teaching, school management, and rural problems; and a regular four-year normal course, that was similar to the standard normal school course and was equivalent to the last two years of high school and the first two years of college (University Record, 1914, 1915).

From 1920-1929, the development of specialized curricula occurred and a broadening of the course offerings resulted. Courses of instruction included educational psychology, child and adolescent psychology, tests and measurements, methods, administration and supervision, elementary and high school curricula, guidance, and history and philosophy of education.

James W. Norman served as dean of Teachers College and Normal School. During the academic year 1928-1929, the Normal School was discontinued, and all instruction was centered in the Teachers College. The name of the Teachers College was changed to the College of Education in 1931 (University Record, 1931).

In 1927, a laboratory school was opened in the Teachers College (Goulding, 1933). The facility provided experience in practice teaching with emphasis placed upon materials and methods courses.

Florida State College for Women. In 1905, the School for Teachers under the direction of L. W. Buchholz, was one of the four main divisions of the college. It offered a four-year course which included culture studies and psychology, pedagogy, and the history of education (Announcement, 1906). A course of study for kindergarten, covering two years of work, was offered, and observation and practice teaching were required (Announcement, 1906). Provision was made for rural school teachers by the organization of special courses for their needs. A Department of Philosophy and Education was included in the College of Liberal Arts.

From 1912-1916, a Department of Education in the College of Arts and Sciences and the Normal School, in connection with which a training school was maintained, were in existence (Wainwright, 1914). The graduate state certification law (explained under teacher certification) influenced the curricula. A bachelor of arts degree for prospective teachers was available only from the College of Arts and Sciences. Courses offered were history and philosophy of education, principles and methods of teaching, school hygiene, and school administration and supervision (Goulding, 1933).

From 1916-1929, the teacher training division of the college was organized as a School of Education. Curricula which led to the A. B. and B. S. in education degrees were offered. The Normal School at the Florida State College for Women included in its organization the training school, the college high school, and the elementary professional division. Curricula available were history, principles,

and philosophy of education and special methods for elementary and high school subjects (Catalog, 1917). In 1921, a statement of the purpose of the college courses in education was printed in the catalog. A demonstration school opened during the academic year 1932-1933, with students in kindergarten, elementary school, and junior and senior high school classes.

Teacher education in public high schools. In 1915, a law authorized and gave financial aid to teacher training departments in public high schools (Florida Statutes, 1915). For several years previous, it had been the practice of high school graduates to take the teachers' certification examinations, and then upon issuance of a certificate, begin to teach. In 1923, high school graduates were allowed first-grade certificates. In 1927, a special state supervisor directed the course of study of the high school teacher training departments; observation and practice teaching were emphasized. In 1931, the high school teacher training departments were discontinued.

Teacher Education in Private Institutions

The type of teacher training offered in the private colleges and universities from 1905-1929 corresponded closely to that found in the state institutions.

As a basically liberal arts college, Rollins College did not stress teacher training activities. In 1901, four college courses were offered which gave instruction in the principles of education, methods of teaching, history of education, and school hygiene (Catalog, 1909). In

1913, graduates of the four-year curricula who took the prescribed amount of professional work were entitled to issuance of the graduate state certificate.

In 1906, in a reorganization of the John B. Stetson University, a Normal School and Teachers College were created (Goulding, 1933). Emphasis was placed on observation and practice teaching. Beginning in 1923, a broadening of the courses offered in education occurred, and this trend continued in accordance with developments in the public schools. In 1928 and 1929, a four-year college course was available which led to the bachelor's degree in education (Bulletin, 1928). In 1931, education courses were offered under departments of instruction in the College of Liberal Arts.

Southern College at Orlando was an outgrowth of the Florida Conference College at Leesburg which was closed in 1899 (Wainwright, 1914). Southern College was established in 1906. A Department of Pedagogy was maintained; completion of the course work enabled a person to take the examination for a state certificate. When the graduate certification law was passed in 1913, Southern College instituted a four-year course. It led to a bachelor of science in education degree. Southern College was moved to Lakeland in 1922, and its teacher education activities were continued (Goulding, 1933). Educational psychology and course instruction in the field of education were altered as teachers faced changing demands in the schools. In 1935, its name was changed to Florida Southern College.

Columbia College was opened in 1907 at Lake City by the Florida Baptist State Convention. It closed in 1918 because of World War I and never reopened (Sheats, 1918). The course offerings in teacher education were similar to those available in other private institutions of the period.

Florida Memorial College, at Miami, was established in 1917 as the Florida Baptist Academy through the merger of the Florida Baptist Institute for Negroes, established in 1879, and the Florida Normal and Industrial School, established in 1892 (American Council on Education, 1983; Handbook of Florida, 1978). In 1918, instruction at the postsecondary level was first available, and the name was changed to the Florida Normal and Industrial Institute. The institution was chartered in 1941 and awarded its first baccalaureate degree in 1945. In 1950, the name was changed to the Florida Normal and Industrial Memorial College. The present name of the institution was adopted in 1963. Teacher training, specifically elementary education, was a part of the curricula.

Bethune-Cookman College, at Daytona Beach, was founded in 1923 as the Daytona-Cookman Institute through the merger of the Cookman Institution, a United Methodist school of higher education for black males established in 1871, and the Daytona Normal and Industrial Institute for (black) Girls, founded in 1904 by Mary McLeod Bethune (American Council on Education, 1983; "Narrative Descriptions," 1981). In 1931, the present name was adopted. The liberal arts college operated as a two-year institution until 1941 when the teacher education curriculum was expanded to a four-year bachelor degree program.

The University of Miami at Coral Gables was opened in 1925. The School of Education was founded in 1926. From the beginning, emphasis was placed on teacher training. Graduates of the four-year curriculum in the School of Education received the degree of bachelor of science in education (University of Miami Bulletin, 1933).

Teacher education in private normal schools. In 1906, W. B. Cate opened the Florida Normal Institute in Madison (Goulding, 1933). A normal department served students from various parts of the state. The South Florida Normal Institute at Dade City was established by P. W. Corr in 1907 (Goulding, 1933). The school offered teacher training courses for nine years.

Teacher Certification

In 1901, the legislature created the "aged teachers' certificates" (Florida Statutes, 1901). The law provided that any person who had satisfactory proof that he or she had taught for either the whole year or a part of each year of the 20 years prior to 1900, in private or public schools in Florida, and had been granted at least one certificate of any grade, should be exempt from taking more examinations (Goulding, 1933; Putney, 1968/1969; Selman, 1956). This certificate was granted to teachers of primary and intermediate grades in any Florida School. In 1903, a law repealed the provisions concerning the aged teachers' certificate but it did not cancel those certificates already issued (Florida Statutes, 1903).

In 1903, the third-, second-, first-grade certificates were good for two, four, and five years respectively, and they were valid in any county of Florida when they were endorsed by the superintendent of that county (Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933). The primary life certificate was restored, and it was issuable by the state superintendent to applicants who furnished satisfactory evidence of fitness to teach and who scored 80 percent correct in an examination on primary studies and methods (Cochran, 1921; Goulding, 1933; Putney, 1968/1969; Selman, 1956). It was valid for four years in grades one, two, and three of a Florida primary school, or for life after four years of successful teaching under the certificate and upon the endorsement of the state superintendent.

The laws were modified in 1909 to provide for seven types of certificates, third-grade, second-grade, first-grade, primary, special, state, and life (life first, life primary, life state) (Selman, 1956). Examinations for these certificates were held twice a year in each county of the state. All questions were prepared by the state superintendent and were sent sealed to the county superintendents. Each applicant was required to give evidence of good moral character from two responsible persons to the examiner and to pay a one dollar fee which was placed in a county school fund. The examinations were graded by a committee of three who were chosen by the superintendent from teachers holding the highest grade certificate in the county.

A third-grade certificate was issued upon an average score of 60 percent correct on the examination and was valid for two years. The

test questions were from the following subject areas: orthography, reading, geography, arithmetic, English grammar, U. S. history, physiology, theory and practice of teaching, composition, agriculture, and civil government (Selman, 1956).

A second-grade certificate was issued upon an average score of 75 percent correct on the examination and was valid for four years. The subject areas tested were the same as for the third-grade certificate.

A first-grade certificate was issued upon an average score of 85 percent correct on the examination and was valid for five years. In addition to the subject areas tested for the third-grade certificate, algebra and physical geography were included (Selman, 1956).

A primary certificate was issued to an applicant who showed evidence of satisfactory fitness for primary teaching and who scored a grade of 80 percent correct on oral and written examinations of primary studies and methods. It was valid for four years in public kindergartens and in grades one, two, and three of regular graded schools of Florida.

A special certificate was issued upon a grade of 90 percent correct on the examination and was valid for five years in secondary schools of Florida.

A state certificate was issued upon an average grade of 85 percent on the examination. It was issued to any eligible applicant who had taught for 24 months under a Florida first-grade certificate and was valid for five years.

A life first certificate was issued on two bases: (a) to an applicant who held a valid first-grade certificate; who gave evidence of 20 years of successful teaching in Florida, nine years of which were taught under certification since July 1, 1894; and who was of good moral character and a faithful and successful teacher; or (b) to an applicant who gave evidence of teaching in Florida for six years under first-grade certificates issued on examinations receiving an average grade of 90 percent correct each. The first-grade certificates must have been issued after January 1, 1894.

A life primary certificate was issued to an applicant who showed evidence of four years of successful teaching under a Florida primary certificate to the state superintendent.

A life state certificate was issued to an applicant, without examination, who held a state certificate issued after January 1, 1894, who had successfully taught for 18 months under a state certificate in a Florida high school or college, and who presented satisfactory endorsement of eminent ability in teaching and in school government from three persons holding life certificates. The certificate was of perpetual validity in any part of the state.

In 1913, the legislature passed an act which enabled graduates of the normal or collegiate departments of the University of Florida and the Florida State College for Women and of any other college or university in the state that would submit to an inspection and would adhere to such regulations as the state BOE and the state board of control might order, to receive from the state superintendent a graduate

state certificate (Florida Statutes, 1913). The graduates had to devote one-fifth of their time in the collegiate departments to professional training. A committee on graduate certificates, at the request of Superintendent Sheats, defined professional training to include " . . . in addition to satisfactory courses in psychology, pedagogy and the history of education, courses in logic, ethics, the history of philosophy, expression and perhaps vocal music and physical culture" (Sheats, 1914, p. 673). In examinations at the close of the junior and senior years, the graduates were required to score an average of 85 percent correct on all subjects, with a grade of 60 percent correct on any subject.

In 1915, the legislature enacted a law providing for the issuance of teachers' training certificates (Florida Statutes, 1915). This law made it possible for a person to be certified without an examination and with less than the normal or college preparation required for the graduate state certificate. A third-grade teacher training certificate was issued upon completion of the elementary professional course with an average of 75 percent in all studies; the certificate was valid for two years. A second-grade teacher training certificate was issued upon completion of the freshman year with an average grade of 75 percent in all studies; the certificate was valid for four years. A first-grade teacher training certificate was issued upon completion of the sophomore year with an average grade of 80 percent in all studies; the certificate was valid for five years.

Provision was made for an extension of certificates in 1915 (Cochran, 1921; Selman, 1956). Any unexpired Florida teacher's certificate could be extended one year if the holder provided evidence of attending one of the state summer schools and of receiving credit for work completed to the state superintendent. A certificate could be extended one year for attendance at each succeeding session.

Temporary certificates were issued by county superintendents for the first time in 1915 (Selman, 1956). These certificates were granted to individuals who were unable to take the last teachers' examinations and were only valid for the time allotted between regular examination periods. This provision remained in effect until 1941.

In 1917, the legislature placed all certification in the hands of the state superintendent and created a state board of examiners (Chipman, 1972/1973; Cochran, 1921; Florida Statutes, 1917; Goulding, 1933; Putney, 1968/1969; Selman, 1956). The board, commonly referred to as "the flying squadron," was composed of three eminently successful teachers who were nominated by the state superintendent and appointed by the state BOE. Its duties included preparing all examination questions, conducting all examinations, grading all examinations, except as provided by the state BOE, and reporting weekly to the state superintendent each examinee's name, examination grade per subject, and grade of certificate to be issued. Each month one examination was held in four or more areas of the state, one in each county every year. A printed schedule of the examination dates and location be sent to each county superintendent in July of the preceding year.

Provision was made in 1917 to reduce the periods of validity of second-grade and third-grade certificates to three years and one year, respectively. Issuance of a life graduate state certificate by the state superintendent, without further examination, to any teacher holding a graduate state certificate, who had successfully taught in Florida for 24 months under a graduate state certificate and who had presented satisfactory endorsement of eminent ability in teaching and in school government from three persons holding life certificates, was made possible by this statute.

Under the 1917 law, provision was made for issuance of another life first-grade certificate. It was granted on the basis of three extensions on the original first-grade certificate and on teaching experience of 48 months. There were three types of life first-grade certificates in force.

A change was made for issuance of temporary certificates. Under the law of 1917, such certificates were issued by the state superintendent upon the request and recommendation of a county superintendent in an emergency. The emergency had to be indicated clearly upon the request. The certificates were valid only until the next regular examination. In 1917, all certificates except the temporary certificate were valid in any part of the state. All certificates could be suspended or revoked for incompetence or immorality.

Florida accepted the provisions of an act, approved by the U. S. Congress on February 23, 1917, which provided for the promotion of

vocational education in agriculture, trades and inquiry, and home economics, and for the training of teachers in those areas (Selman, 1956; White, A. O., 1979). Under the Smith-Hughes Act, the state vocational educational board was authorized to establish guidelines concerning the qualifications for certification of teachers, directors, and supervisors.

The 1917 law specified that a person, who did not hold a valid teacher's certificate covering the subject(s) to be taught, would not be allowed to teach in any Florida public school. Fees for the various types of certificates were set by the 1917 law as follows: third-grade, \$1.00; second-grade, \$1.50; first-grade, \$2.00; primary, \$3.00; special, \$2.50; state and graduate state, \$5.00.

The law of 1919 required that the applicant for a graduate state certificate furnish a complete transcript of credits (Chipman, 1972/1973; Florida Statutes, 1919). Graduates of the collegiate departments were to devote three-twentieths of their time in college to the study of psychology and education, according to a 1921 law requirement (Florida Statutes, 1921).

Specialization requirements for certification in most secondary subjects were detailed in 1923 (Selman, 1956). For certification in a secondary subject, a minimum of 12 semester credit hours in that particular subject was required. All certificates based on graduation from a two-year or four-year program at a four-year degree granting institution carried a blanket certification in the elementary field.

A 1923 law created a state grading committee (Florida Statutes, 1923). This committee, selected and recommended by the state superintendent and confirmed by the state BOE, graded the examinations prepared by prospective teachers in tests conducted three times yearly by the county superintendents in each of the 67 counties of the state (Goulding, 1933; Selman, 1956). The law specified that no person under 17 years of age could teach in any of the Florida public schools.

Provisions of a law of 1925 made it mandatory for all persons who applied for Florida teachers' certificates to pass a satisfactory examination upon the provisions and principles of the U. S. Constitution (Chipman, 1972/1973; Florida Statutes, 1925). In 1927, applicants for graduate state certificates were exempt from the examination if their college records showed six semester hours in American history and government, including a study of the Constitution of the United States (Florida Statutes, 1927).

In summary. With the Florida state public education system in the process of evolving from 1900-1929, teacher education throughout the state continued to grow and to improve. The Buckman Act of 1905 consolidated the white institutions into two state institutions, the University of Florida and the Florida State College for Women. A Teachers College and a School of Education were created in those institutions, respectively, and a gradual broadening in the curricula occurred as it became necessary to keep pace with the changing concepts and practices in public education. Five private institutions were offering teacher training at the end of the period while two private

normal schools and normal departments in the public high schools also assisted in teacher preparation.

The graduate state certification law of 1913 initiated the transition from the practice of issuing teachers' certificates on the basis of examination results only to the practice of issuing them on the basis of training for the work to be performed. Certificates were granted to graduates of institutions of higher learning in the state if they took a specified amount of professional work. As the level of the attainment of teachers was raised, there was a demand for the adjustment of certification requirements to meet the changed conditions.

Florida Teacher Education during the Era of the Depression, 1929-1941

The onslaught of the Great Depression precipitated a school financial crisis in Florida. In the early 1930s, the Florida Education Association adopted resolutions which asked for a guaranteed full eight-month school term and greater financial support of the schools from the state. Conditions became so critical financially that many schools closed early in 1933 because of a lack of funds (Florida Education Association, 1958). In November 1934, the school lobby generated publicity about nearly bankrupt county school systems and nearly destitute teachers. By February 1939, 40 school districts expected early closings (White, A. O., 1979).

Money bills dominated the 1939 legislative session. Unexpectedly, the legislature passed a teacher retirement system and a teacher tenure bill in 1939 (Florida Statutes, 1939). By the end of 1939, funds from

the Works Progress Administration had returned 345 teachers to their classrooms. Federal requirements for matching local funds generated considerable support from state and local governments and other sponsoring agencies (Schroder, 1940). With the American entry into World War II, education and the teaching force were disrupted.

Advisory Groups for Teacher Education

The involvement of the nation and the State of Florida in the happenings surrounding the Great Depression and in the preparations for World War II greatly affected education, including teacher education, in the state. Since the number of teachers prepared and the quality of their training programs were growing slowly, two organizations, one inside and one outside education, were established to oversee the development of programs, to gather information concerning their progress, and to make recommendations for state guidelines and control.

Teacher Education Advisory Council. From 1937-1959, the Florida state DOE was advised in matters related to teacher education by a group composed of representatives from the state DOE, colleges and universities, and public schools. The Teacher Education Advisory Council, known as the TEAC, had its beginnings at the Teacher Training Conference in Gainesville in June 1937 (Putney, 1968/1969; Tubbs, 1961/1962). Members of this early volunteer TEAC (legalized by the 1947 legislature), formed at that conference, discussed the training of teachers, guidance of students in education, and teacher certification (Teacher Training Conference, 1937). The TEAC voluntarily

began a study of educational problems in Florida. The group worked to raise teacher certification standards and to establish a preservice internship program as an integral part of teacher training.

Continuing Educational Council. Created in March 1931 by the FEA executive committee, the Continuing Educational Council was a voluntary association of citizens designed to coordinate into one unit all significant civic groups with programs for better schools (White, A. O., 1979). The council was composed of representatives from such statewide organizations as the Florida branch of the American Association of University Women, the Florida department of the American Legion, the American Legion Auxiliary, the Daughters of the American Revolution, the Florida Bar, the Florida Congress of Parents and Teachers, the Florida Federation of Labor, the Florida State Chamber of Commerce, the Florida department of the Veterans of Foreign Wars, the Florida School Board Association, the state DOE, the FEA, and the state colleges and universities (Tubbs, 1961/1962). The work of this council was devoted to research which would lead to better schools for the children of Florida and better salaries for their teachers. Their work influenced the public school curriculum and encouraged more physical education, mathematics, physics, and home economics. The council lobbied for a \$2 million emergency relief fund, a teacher retirement system, an \$800 instruction unit in dependable state aid, and a tax inquiry committee to examine the taxing abilities and revenue needs of the state (White, A. O., 1979).

Teacher Education in State Institutions

For purposes of this study, the University of Florida teacher education program was selected to serve as representative of programs in other state institutions of Florida. Curricula and general descriptions of the College of Education in university catalogs were inspected to aid in understanding the training of teachers and changes that occurred in that preparation throughout this period.

In 1931, graduates of a four-year degree program in teacher education were granted graduate state certificates without further examination provided that three-twentieths of their academic work was devoted to professional training and satisfied law requirements of passing an examination upon the provisions and principles of the U. S. Constitution (University Record, 1931). The graduates were permitted to teach only the subjects that were listed on their certificates. Courses of instruction in 1931 included introduction to classroom teaching, history and principles of education, tests and measurements, the teacher and the learner, the training and professionalizing of the teacher, and supervised teaching.

In 1931, the General Education Board of New York City made a grant of \$150,000 to construct and equip a new laboratory-demonstration school building (University Record, 1933). The 1931 legislature appropriated an additional \$200,000. Construction began on the building in 1932. The building, named in honor of P. K. Yonge of Pensacola who served for many years as chairman of the state board of control, was completed in the fall of 1934.

In 1933, the College of Education was composed of the lower and upper divisions (University Record, 1933). Included in the lower division course work were these classes: introduction to education, introduction to social studies, educational psychology, and the history of literature. Upper division classes were philosophy of education, child and adolescent psychology, general methods, and supervised student teaching.

A major and a minor were first designated in 1934 (University Record, 1934). In September 1935, all beginning students were required to enroll in the General College for two years. The normal diploma was discontinued in August 1937. In 1941, Glenn B. Simmons became the fourth dean of the college.

In 1941, professional courses required for an elementary education major included children's social studies, children's science, children's literature, health and physical education, and public school art and music. The preadolescent child, problems of instruction, health education, and introduction of education were categorized as education courses.

Teacher Education in Private Institutions

Curricula and general descriptions of the teacher training programs of John B. Stetson University were examined in detail. The programs at Stetson University would be comparable to those in other well established private institutions. The offerings at Stetson, however, were more comprehensive than in many of the smaller private institutions.

The purpose of the Department of Psychology and Education, in the College of Liberal Arts, was to serve the state and to prepare competent teachers for Florida public schools. Courses complying with all conditions required by state law and the state BOE were offered in 1931. Two courses of study, a two-year professional course leading to a diploma of Licentiate of Instruction and a full four-year college course leading to a degree of Bachelor of Arts, were offered. In 1931, 27 term hours were required in education for a four-year graduate and 15 term hours were required for a two-year course (Bulletin, 1931). The courses included educational psychology; school management; curriculum, tests, and devices; techniques of teaching; history of education; general psychology; high school techniques and methods; philosophy of education; educational sociology; psychology of childhood; tests and measurements; and methods in music and arts.

In 1933, 18 semester credit hours were required in education courses for a four-year degree and nine semester credit hours were required for a two-year course. Additional courses offered were industrial arts, health education, standardized objective tests, psychology of adolescence, and character education (Bulletin, 1933).

In 1936, the elementary curriculum, primary and elementary methods, curriculum development, junior high school, and principles of secondary education were added (Bulletin, 1936). The Division of the Art of Teaching was created in 1941 (Bulletin, 1941). A broad, general background was considered essential for teachers. Six semester credit hours each in science, social studies, and English were required, and

one semester credit hour was required in health education and in physical education. A nine week preservice internship and six semester credit hours of observation and practice teaching were included in the professional preparation requirements in 1941.

Three additional private institutions were established during this period. They were located across the state.

The University of Tampa was established in Tampa as the Tampa Junior College and offered its first postsecondary instruction in 1931 (American Council on Education, 1983). In 1933, the present name was adopted, and upper division classes were offered. The first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1935. A Department of Education provided teacher training courses.

In 1934, Jacksonville Junior College, in Jacksonville, was established and operated as an evening college. In 1944, day and evening classes were conducted. In 1956, the institution became Jacksonville University (Irwin, 1960). Upper division courses were offered in 1957, and the first baccalaureate degree was conferred in 1959. Teacher education courses were a part of the curricula.

Barry University, in Miami, was founded as Barry College in 1940 by the Roman Catholic Church. The first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1942 (American Council on Education, 1983). Teacher training courses were offered. A graduate department was established in 1954 (Irwin, 1960). The present name was adopted in 1981.

Teacher Certification

In 1930, W. S. Cawthon, state superintendent of public instruction, wrote that the number of applicants for certification, based on examination alone, was decreasing (Cawthon, 1930). Cawthon was hopeful that the examinations would soon be abolished. In 1932, Cawthon reported that more and more teachers were obtaining their certification by graduation from teacher training institutions rather than through examinations (Cawthon, 1932). This was the beginning of a long and involved process that eventually resulted in replacing certification by examination with certification by professional preparation.

In 1932, the state BOE passed a regulation which established specialization requirements for certification in the Elementary School Course (Selman, 1956). To have the Elementary School Course entered on the face of a graduate state certificate, credits in education must have included three semester hours in one of the following courses: introduction to education, history of education, educational psychology, or child and adolescent psychology; and three semester hours in elementary school curriculum or in supervised teaching of elementary subjects. In addition to the previously named professional courses, the following courses of specialization requirements must have been completed: two semester hours in methods of teaching science in the elementary grades, two semester hours in physical education, four semester hours in public school music, four semester hours in public school art, and one credit or non-credit semester hour in penmanship.

In 1939, J. Colin English, state superintendent of public instruction, recommended several revisions that helped to reduce the number of examination certificates (English, 1940). The examination centers were reduced in number from 67 to nine, and the number of times the examination was given was reduced from three times to once per year. The only certification issued on the basis of examination was a special certificate (Florida Statutes, 1939). Four specific areas were covered in the examination for this certificate: basic information, general professional, Constitution of the United States, and the applicant's special subject field(s). Prerequisites for the examination were that the applicant must have held a Florida certificate prior to October 1, 1939, or must have completed 30 semester hours of credit at a four-year degree granting institution of higher learning. The special certificate was valid for three years and could be extended.

In 1939, the law provided for a graduate certificate which replaced the graduate state certificate based on a four-year degree (Florida Statutes, 1939). An applicant for a graduate certificate must have satisfied the general and professional requirements, and the specialization requirement in the subject(s) that he or she planned to teach. An examination on the U. S. Constitution must have been taken in Florida and passed.

General preparation requirements included six semester hours each in English, science, and social studies. One semester hour course was required in health education and in physical education.

Professional preparation requirements included the completion of 18 semester hours in education, six of those 18 hours were to be in general psychology. In addition, three semester hours in observation and practice teaching were required beginning on September 1, 1940, and six semester hours in observation and practice teaching were required beginning on September 1, 1941. Prior to 1940, credit was not required in observation and practice teaching. Specialization requirements varied from 15 to 30 semester hours according to the subject.

Provision was made for the issuance of a professional certificate to an applicant who held a graduate certificate under the 1939 law, who had taught the subject(s) covered by the certificate for 24 months, and who had secured two extensions on the graduate certificate. The professional certificate was valid for 10 years and could be extended.

The requirements for the provisional certificate were the same as for the graduate certificate except that the applicant could lack six semester credit hours of meeting any single group of requirements if the requirement regarding graduation was met and if no second provisional certificate was issued to the same applicant within a five-year period. This certificate was valid for one year and could be extended only once.

There were no provisions in the 1939 law for the issuance of any type of life certificate. Any person who held a valid life certificate was subject to the statute(s) under which the certificate had been granted.

In 1939, a change was made in the minimum age limit for teachers from 17 to 18 years (Selman, 1956). This state BOE regulation further specified that after July 1, 1940, a teacher must be at least 19 years old, and after July 1, 1941, a teacher must be at least 20 years old.

In summary. The Great Depression which was followed shortly by World War II had a decided impact upon educational progress within the state. Teacher training remained at much of a standstill from 1929-1941. Preservice internship was initiated late in the period. The only certification issued on the basis of examination was a special teacher's certificate as of 1939. Specialization, graduate, professional, and provisional certifications were provided for by law.

Florida Teacher Education during the War Years, 1941-1947

The direct impact of World War II extended beyond the cessation of the hostilities. By the end of this period, 1941-1947, Florida schools faced a series of crises. Many certified teachers went into the military service or war-time industries during the war years. The resulting teacher shortage was filled by personnel teaching under temporary and emergency certificates. Former teachers returning from the war and prospective teachers found salaries low. School buildings were in poor condition. Budgetary difficulties affected public schools and colleges alike. These problems were exacerbated by rapidly increasing enrollments due to increased birth rates and the influx of new residents.

Advisory Groups for Teacher Education

Groups inside and outside education continued in their efforts of advisement in matters relating to teacher training programs in Florida. The Teacher Education Advisory Council (TEAC), which had its beginnings in 1937 and was described in the previous period (Era of the Depression), was made a legal body by the 1947 legislature (Florida Statutes, 1947).

In April 1944, the FEA and the Continuing Educational Council requested Governor Millard F. Caldwell to appoint a commission that would be financed by the legislature for the purpose of making a study of school needs in Florida (Tubbs, 1961/1962; White, A. O., 1979). In response to that request, the Governor selected 15 outstanding Florida citizens to comprise the Florida Citizens Committee on Education; the group was approved by the 1945 legislature. The committee made a two-year study of the public schools of Florida, and the findings were used by the FEA and other groups to enlist statewide support of the public on behalf of the schools. The committee was known chiefly for its efforts in gaining the support for the 1947 enactment of the Minimum Foundation Program of Florida (discussed later in this period) (Handbook for Florida's, 1954).

The 1947 legislature authorized the formation of the State Advisory Council on Education which was to be composed of seven representative Florida citizens (Florida Statutes, 1947). This committee was appointed by the Governor for four-year-overlapping terms, and its function was to be advisory to the state BOE and the board of control. The committee

was formed to aid in determining desirable standards and policies for education, to assure satisfactory relationships among all phases of education, and to interpret and promote education throughout the state (Florida Statutes, 1947).

Preservice Internship Program in Florida

The idea for a preservice internship program for Florida originated in the mid 1930s. In discussing college preparation of prospective teachers, representatives from the state DOE, colleges and universities, and public schools agreed that more classroom experience was needed in the professional preparation programs for teachers (Teacher Training Conference, 1937; Tubbs, 1961/1962). Up until 1940, college graduates could be certified to teach in Florida without presenting credit evidence of practical experiences (Selman, 1956).

C. E. Prall, field coordinator for the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education and consultant to the TEAC in 1940 and 1941, described the situation regarding college facilities for providing experiences in teacher education as follows:

Only the University of Florida had a demonstration school adequate for all of its prospective teachers. Florida Southern College and the University of Miami had campus elementary schools which could meet the practical needs of limited numbers of students, but they had no similar facilities on the secondary level. The State College for Women had a campus school of approximately 300 elementary and secondary pupils which had been established primarily for demonstration work. It was totally inadequate to serve the proposed carrying load of 150 student teachers every semester. Stetson University, Rollins College, and the University of Tampa were

without campus schools of any kind. . . . (Prall, 1946, p. 234)

Thus, the opportunity was ripe for educational leaders in Florida to strengthen the institutional and state DOE requirements of providing practical experiences along with the methods and theory classes in professional teacher preparation. The task, however, was complicated by the fact that Florida was attempting to recover from the effects of the depression and World War II.

The Teacher Training Conference in Gainesville in June 1937, initiated the movement toward a statewide preservice internship program. Participants at the conference discussed guidance for prospective teachers in their training, methods and theory courses, practical teaching experiences, and teacher certification.

From April 28 through May 3, 1941, representatives from the state DOE, colleges and universities, and public schools met at a state park near Fort White for the Camp O'Leno Conference. The meeting was organized to discuss ways of improving teacher education and certification, to discuss requiring practical experience as part of teacher preparation, and to outline tentative guiding principles for a preservice internship program (Sanders, 1961; Tubbs, 1961/1962). Florida State College for Women, Florida Southern College, and the University of Tampa had started preservice internships on an experimental basis but a statewide program was not in effect. Many of the educators in Florida were not convinced of the practicality of preservice internship.

Out of the Camp O'Leno Conference emerged guiding principles on which to build a preservice internship program. However, acceptance of the program across the state was slow. Each college was allowed flexibility in meeting state regulations.

In October 1941, the TEAC met at Camp O'Leno to receive reports from the colleges regarding preservice internship as a part of the teacher education curricula (Minutes, 1941). The University of Florida reported no interns in the field; interns were sent out for the first time in 1950. The Florida State College for Women had interns scattered from Pensacola to Miami; they were in the field for eight weeks and received seven semester credit hours. At the University of Miami, the first half of the senior year was devoted to preservice internship; interns were in the field for nine weeks and had three weeks of seminars at the end of the semester. At the University of Tampa, the preservice internship lasted nine weeks. Florida Southern College reported that seniors made preparations for preservice internship in the fall term, had field work in the winter term, and attended seminars in the spring term; eight semester credit hours were given for the preservice internship. The interns were in the field for eight weeks and received eight semester credit hours at Stetson University.

In 1943, the Florida Teacher Education Advisory Council published a handbook on preservice internship (Goulding, R. L., Johnson, E., Weiss, M., & Jones, E., 1943). It was addressed to the intern and the directing teacher. Suggestions were given concerning aiding students in understanding the importance of preservice internship and in developing

proper concepts regarding classroom management and activities. A way to encourage cooperation among college personnel inside and outside education was addressed.

Florida's Minimum Foundation Program

In 1947, on the basis of studies made between 1945 and 1947 by the Florida Citizens Committee on Education, the legislature enacted the Minimum Foundation Program (Florida's Minimum, 1956). The program was based on a state school fund designated for distribution to each county. Three steps were used to determine the allocation of state funds for the schools in the 67 counties: (a) calculation of the sum of money needed for teachers' salaries, transportation, other current expenses, and capital outlay for the year; (b) calculation of the sum of money which the county must supply toward meeting the cost by using the Index of Taxpaying Ability; and (c) disbursement from the General Revenue Fund of the state of what was necessary to make up the difference that remained between what was needed and what the county must supply under the formula that determined the ability of each county to finance local education (Florida's Minimum, 1956). The Index of Taxpaying Ability used five factors: (a) sales tax collections as reported by the state comptroller; (b) number of gainfully employed workers in the county, excluding government and farm workers, taken from the U. S. census; (c) value of farm products as reported in the U. S. census of agriculture; (d) assessed value of railroad and telegraph properties as reported by the state comptroller; and (e) automotive tag

sales (passenger cars) reported by the Motor Vehicle Commission (Florida's Minimum, 1956).

A county determined the amount of money needed for teachers' salaries by using a formula that included the average daily attendance for a school, the size of the school, and the location of the school in the county; and by computing the number of teachers in each of the six ranks of certification. The measurement that determined the number of teachers in a county was known as the "basic teaching unit", the teacher in a regular classroom. Besides the basic teaching unit, the program gave extra units for vocational and adult education, for classes of exceptional children (physically, emotionally, and mentally handicapped), for supervisors of instruction, and for administrative and special instructional services. Aid for units to support kindergarten or junior colleges was available provided certain additional taxes for this purpose were levied (Florida's Minimum, 1956).

Besides financial efforts, the program required counties to hold school for 180 days per year, establish teacher salary schedules, guarantee college graduate teachers at least \$2,550 per year, require loyalty oaths of teachers, abolish special tax districts, and implement DOE recommendations for school consolidation (White, A. O., 1979).

The Minimum Foundation Program delineated the college training necessary for ranks of certificates (described in the teacher certification section) and gave incentive to teachers to improve their ranking. As the counties built new schools, new classrooms were provided for use in the preservice internship program. College

curricula were designed to accomodate the needs of the public schools and the certification standards.

Teacher Education in State Institutions

World War II emphasized the need for adequately trained and competent medical personnel. In 1943, the legislature passed a law providing for the creation of a state university "to be known as the 'University of South Florida', whose primary purpose shall be a School of Medicine, a School of Pharmacy and a School of Dentistry" (Florida Statutes, 1943, p. 894). The institution was to be coeducational but no money was appropriated for its establishment. Ten years later the 1943 act was repealed (Florida Statutes, 1953). Recreated in 1956, the University of South Florida, at Tampa, admitted the first freshman class in 1960. An additional class was added each academic year until a four-year program was in operation (Board of Control, 1958). Teacher education courses were offered in 1961. The first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1962.

The Florida legislature, in 1947, changed the name of the Florida State College for Women to the Florida State University (Florida Statutes, 1947). The University of Florida and Florida State University became coeducational in 1947.

Following the pattern established in describing the period 1929-1941, the University of Florida teacher education program curricula were inspected to aid in understanding the training of teachers and the changes that occurred in that preparation throughout this period. The

curricula from 1941-1946 remained unchanged. In 1945, the name of General College was changed to University College.

In 1947, the University College courses required for an elementary education major included handwriting, public school music and art, introduction to education, general psychology, and sociological foundations of modern life (University Record, 1947). Child development, children's social studies, children's science, children's literature, English, health education and physical education, and educational psychology dominated the junior year. The senior courses included problems in instruction, teaching reading, teaching social studies, teaching English, and student teaching. Secondary education curriculum in the University College listed general psychology, introduction to education, effective speaking, and sociological foundations of modern life. Courses for the junior year were child development, educational psychology, development and organization of education, and the secondary school curriculum and instruction in the major fields. Philosophy of education and student teaching dominated the senior year preparation.

Teacher Education in Private Institutions

Following the pattern set in reporting on the period 1929-1941, Stetson University teacher education curriculum was inspected to aid in understanding the training of teachers and the changes that occurred in that preparation throughout this period. In 1942, the Department of Teacher Education was a division of the social sciences in the College

of Liberal Arts (Bulletin, 1942). An eight week preservice internship was required and gave eight semester hours of credit. An additional three semester credit hours were earned from the internship seminar.

Stetson University emphasized the importance of the professional training of teachers (Bulletin, 1947). This idea was reinforced through the organization of Saturday classes, the enlargement of summer work, and the preservice internship.

In 1947, a broad, cultural background in liberal arts and sciences and health was provided as basic preparation for elementary and secondary teachers. General requirements included six semester credit hours each in science, social studies, and English, and one semester credit hour was required in health education and physical education. It was considered highly desirable to take courses in mathematics, fine arts, and language arts. Professional requirements included 18 semester credit hours of education courses plus six semester credit hours each in observation and practice teaching and the internship. The elementary education courses offered were educational psychology or child and adolescent psychology; history and principles of education or introduction to education; elementary school curriculum; general methods of teaching in the elementary school; children's literature; method and materials in teaching reading, science, arithmetic, social studies, physical education, and health education in the elementary school; and public school art and music. Secondary education requirements were specified for each subject field in which the student desired to teach. Directed learning, administration problem and practices, comparative education, and philosophy of education were offered.

Teacher Certification

During World War II, many teachers left their classrooms because of the military draft and higher salaries found in war industries. Regulation changes in teacher certification resulted. In 1941, emergency certificates, replacing the temporary certificates, were issued but only when no properly trained and certified individuals were available to fill specific positions (Chipman, 1972/1973; Selman, 1956; Tubbs, 1961/1962). The county superintendent requested the emergency certificate on a special application form to which he or she attached a letter that explained the nature of the emergency, the efforts made to secure a regularly certificated teacher, and a statement regarding plans to fill that particular position in the future. In 1951, issuance of this type of certificate was discontinued.

In 1942, the state BOE established the war emergency examination certificate (Sanders, 1961; Selman, 1956; Tubbs, 1961/1962). This regulation specified that any person holding a valid Florida teacher's certificate at the time of entering military service could have the certificate extended for a period of time that was equivalent to the time spent in wartime military service if proper application was made and substantiating evidence of service was presented to the state DOE within six months after his or her discharge. The certificate was valid for one year and could be extended.

Between 1943 and 1946, the state BOE passed regulations that provided for the issuance of three types of certificates, limited war provisional, war provisional for graduates, and war provisional for

undergraduates (Chipman, 1972/1973; Selman, 1956; Tubbs, 1961/1962). Standards for the issuance of these certificates were lower than those required for regular certificates.

Through regulations of the state BOE, amendments were made to the certification laws in 1947 (Putney, 1968/1969; Sanders, 1961; Selman, 1956; Tubbs, 1961/1962). A post graduate certificate was issued to an applicant who met the requirements for the issuance of the regular graduate certificate and who held a master's degree from a four-year degree granting institution of higher learning or who had completed 36 semester hours in a planned program beyond a bachelor's degree. An advanced post graduate certificate was issued to an applicant who met the requirements for the issuance of the post graduate certificate and who held a doctor's degree from a four-year degree granting institution of higher learning or who had completed 36 semester hours in a planned program beyond a master's degree.

In 1947, the provisional graduate certificate replaced the provisional certificate. This certificate was issued on practically the same basis as the provisional certificate. It was valid for three years and could be extended.

The 1947 legislature made performance on the National Teacher Examination the only basis for the issuance of the special certificate, a certificate, first issued in 1909, that specified the secondary subject(s) the holder was certified to teach (Florida Statutes, 1947). Applicants were required to make satisfactory scores on the common battery of the examinations as well as on one or more of the optional examinations.

The 1947 legislature also provided for the ranking of all teachers' certificates under the Florida Minimum Foundation Program (Florida Statutes, 1947). These rankings ranged from six to one with the later being the highest under the program.

In summary. World War II had a direct affect upon the public schools and teacher education. Many certified teachers went into the military service or war-time industries. The resulting teacher shortage was filled by personnel teaching under temporary and emergency certificates. A statewide teacher preservice internship program was in the early stages of development. In an effort to equalize the educational opportunities of Florida school children, the legislature enacted the Minimum Foundation Program. The amount of money each eligible county received from the program depended on the index of taxpaying ability, number of instructional units, types of instructional activity, and qualification of teachers. Under the program, the 1947 legislature provided for the ranking of all teachers' certificates. Performance on the National Teacher Examination was the only basis for the issuance of the special, specified secondary subject(s), certificate.

Florida Teacher Education in the Postwar Years, 1947-1958

In 1948, Tom Bailey was elected state superintendent of public instruction. He and Ed Henderson, executive secretary of the FEA, became the chief spokesmen for the school lobby in Florida (White, A. O., 1975). They credited the Minimum Foundation Program with raising

the percentage of college graduates among Florida teachers from 63 percent in 1946 to 87 percent in 1950. This gave Florida one of the best trained teaching staffs in the nation.

In late 1950, Bailey began informing Floridians about a growing educational crisis in the state. Clear indicators of the crisis included inadequate financing for public education, shortages of classrooms, shortages of elementary schools, and inferior black schools (White, A. O., 1979).

As early as 1951, federal threats to school segregation prompted the Florida legislature to appropriate additional funds in an effort to equalize black school facilities. Funding from the Minimum Foundation Program enabled Bailey to begin equalizing educational opportunities between the races. The program contributed to 86 percent of the black teachers having college (bachelor) degrees. In 1952, as a consequence of a U. S. Supreme Court ruling, the Supreme Court of Florida opened the state universities to blacks applying for programs not available at Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes. A 1953 Florida statute changed the name of that institution to Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University (Florida Statutes, 1953).

The United States Supreme Court made its desegregation decision on May 17, 1954, and followed on June 1, 1955, with its enforcement decree. This decree called for school "desegregation with deliberate speed." LeRoy Collins, governor of Florida, interpreted the ruling to leave ample time to accomplish school desegregation "without furor or hysteria" (White, A. O., 1979).

Early in 1959, Florida felt the economic recession that was affecting the nation. A wave of economic disasters curtailed the building industry, reduced tourism, slowed the population growth, and increased the number of foreclosures in Florida. Compounding these problems, the legislators became embattled in increasing demands for school desegregation.

With the election of Farris Bryant as the governor of Florida in 1961, the outlook for Florida schools deteriorated further. The legislature cut \$2 million from the free state textbook program. Funds for libraries and educational TV were removed. Guaranteed teachers' salary raises were only \$200. However, the legislature did fully fund the first to twelfth grade program under the Minimum Foundation Program, continued to match funds for classroom construction, and allocated money to open the first upper division university at Boca Raton, Florida (White, A. O., 1979).

The inequities of the tax system of Florida yielded proportionally less and less funding for schools. Between 1956 and 1966, when the number of public school students increased from 823,759 to 1,300,000, Florida moved from having the seventeenth largest school system in the U. S. to the ninth largest in the nation. During the same time period, however, the state dropped from twelfth to thirty-fourth in per capita expenditures in education (White, A. O., 1979). Having once attained the highest school allocations among Deep South states, Florida fell to fourth from the bottom between 1941 and 1964.

These changes had a devastating effect on the teaching profession in Florida. Surveyed in 1964, former Florida teachers, representing 25 different disciplines, indicated that by leaving to teach in other states or by leaving the profession entirely, each had gained at least \$350 in salary and most had received \$2,000 or more (White, A. O., 1979).

Claude Kirk was elected governor of Florida in 1966. He was pledged to austerity. With the continuing reduced spending for schools, teacher militancy began to grow. In 1968, many teachers in the state walked out of their classrooms. Higher teachers' salaries and more legislative expenditures for education were their goals.

Advisory Groups for Teacher Education

Advisory groups continued, throughout this period, to help in improving teacher training by overseeing the development of teacher education programs, by gathering information concerning the progress of the programs, and by making recommendations in regards to state guidelines and control.

Teacher Education Advisory Council. The TEAC had its beginnings at the Teacher Training Conference held in Gainesville in 1937. In 1947, legal status was given to the TEAC by the state legislature. The duties assigned to the TEAC by the legislators were:

1. To plan and conduct in cooperation with the State Department of Education and institutions of higher learning, studies relating to the selection, education, guidance, and placement of school personnel and especially of instructional and administrative personnel in the State.

2. To submit to the State Superintendent and through him to the State Board, on or before January 1 of each year, a report summarizing the finding of studies conducted during the year and proposing such recommendations for improvement in the program as are considered desirable. (Handbook for Florida's, 1954, pp. 50-51)

The TEAC became a service organization working closely with the teacher training institutions and the state DOE. The council searched for ways of improving teacher education and teacher certification. In 1955, the TEAC surveyed all beginning teachers, including blacks, to secure data to help evaluate the effectiveness of preservice teacher education programs in Florida. This study, the Florida Study of Teacher Education, had the following objectives: (a) to discover the difference between fully certified teachers and those holding temporary certificates as reflected by the teacher's evaluation of his or her preservice program, the principal's evaluation of the preservice program as revealed in the understandings and skills of the teacher, and the teacher's attitude toward teaching and children as revealed by the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory; (b) to discover the major areas of strengths and weaknesses in the preservice programs as seen by the teachers and principals; (c) to secure suggestions from beginning teachers and their principals for strengthening the preservice program; (d) to discover differences between teachers working in their certified fields and those working in fields for which they were not certified; and (e) to discover differences between teachers completing a preservice program of five years and those completing a preservice program of four years (Florida Study, 1958).

Dean J. B. White, College of Education, University of Florida, served as chairman of the research committee. He was assisted by Dr. J. T. Kelley, Director of Teacher Education, Certification, and Accreditation in the state DOE.

Conclusions reached from the study included (a) teachers holding graduate certificates tended to rate their preservice programs of teacher education higher than those who were teaching on temporary certificates; (b) teachers who held graduate certificates felt more kindly toward children and teaching than those who had temporary certificates; (c) teachers felt that the internship or student teaching experience was the most valuable part of the preservice program; (d) teachers were generally critical of the foundation courses; (e) principals felt that the preservice program could be improved by providing greater opportunity for direct work with children, broader internship, and more opportunity for observation and participation; (f) teachers working in their fields of preparation felt better satisfied with their preservice program than those working outside their fields of preparation; (g) beginning teachers who had completed five years of college were more successful than those who had completed four years of college; and (h) no significant differences were found between teacher preparation in Florida institutions and in institutions in other states (Florida Study, 1958).

In 1959, the legislature passed a bill reconstituting the membership of the TEAC to allow for lay representation (Florida Statutes, 1959). This was accomplished by reducing the membership

representing the public schools and junior colleges from 20 to 12 and the FEA and state DOE from eight to four. One representative from the College of Arts and Sciences of each of the universities having a College or School of Education was added. Six lay representatives were to be appointed by the Governor. All personnel were to serve three-year-overlapping terms. The bill also provided for reimbursement of the members' expenses accrued while attending TEAC meetings.

The 1967 legislature extended the duties of the TEAC to include (a) aiding in the development of desirable standards for teacher education and (b) assisting in the improvement of teacher, administrator, and supervisory education in the state (Florida Statutes, 1967).

It was through the TEAC that any individual, group, organization, school, college, or the state DOE had the opportunity to be heard on any particular certification regulation (Putney, 1968/1969; Sanders, 1961). Problems presented to the council were discussed and then referred to the proper committee for further study. Over the years, problem areas discussed and analyzed by the TEAC included (a) reciprocity of teacher certification among the states (1951 and 1953); (b) the elimination of age from teachers' certificates (1962); (c) the severe teacher shortage (1966); and (d) the certifying of specialists, school psychologists and counselors (1968).

Continuing Educational Council. The Continuing Educational Council was created in March 1931. In 1957, at the request of Governor LeRoy Collins, the council conducted a study dealing with the shortage of

teachers in Florida public school (Sanders, 1961). The study attempted to determine how to obtain and then hold good teachers. Recommendations from the survey stressed the need for a salary increase rather than a need for certification regulation changes (Continuing Educational Council, 1957). With widespread public support, the 1957 legislature passed the "package plan" (Sanders, 1961; White, A. O., 1979). This bill appropriated an additional \$115 million annually for education--including teacher salary raises.

The council studied for nearly two years the teacher education program and teacher certification in Florida. The 1958 report explained that many people in the state equated teacher certification requirements with the entire program of teacher education (Sanders, 1961). The report helped to foster better lay understanding of teacher certification requirements.

The thinking of the Continuing Educational Council was set forth in its 1960 publication.

The Continuing Educational Council urges teacher-training institutions to continue their determined efforts to see that every graduate who is eligible for a degree to teach receives thorough preparation not only in his content field . . . but also in teaching methods, "how" children learn, and the most up-to-date methods of motivating children so they really want to learn. (Continuing Educational Council, 1960, p. 1)

State Advisory Council on Education. The 1947 legislature authorized the formation of this group of citizens. In 1961, the legislature passed a bill which abolished the State Advisory Council on Education and created the State Junior College Advisory Board (Florida

Statutes, 1961). This new board was composed of seven representative citizens appointed by the Governor for four-year-overlapping terms. The board had no mandatory powers, but it advised the state BOE on matters relating to junior colleges.

Interim Legislative Educational Committee. The 1957 legislature created the Interim Legislative Educational Committee (Florida Statutes, 1957). Six members from the Florida Senate, six members from the Florida House of Representatives, and eight representative citizens appointed by the Governor composed the committee. This committee studied the following areas: recruitment of teachers, certification and programs of teacher education, National Teachers Examination, the TEAC, accreditation, continuing contract, free time for teachers, and higher education.

A 1959 report by the committee gave recommendations (Expanding Horizons, 1959). Those recommendations acted upon included (a) revision of the TEAC membership by the 1959 legislature and (b) requirement of passing the National Teachers Examination for all new teacher certification and for all teachers applying for higher certification ranking based on an earned advanced degree (Expanding Horizons, 1959).

Preservice Internship Program in Florida

In 1948, the Florida TEAC published for statewide use the successor to the Handbook on Internship of 1943, Introduction to Internship (Holden, E., Liverette, I., Girardeau, A., Drago, F., Gallant, H., Green, E., & Slone, J., 1948). The contents gave readers an understanding of the purposes of a preservice internship program.

At a TEAC meeting held at the University of Miami in November 1952, four preservice internship problems were discussed (a) the colleges started their internships on different dates and kept the interns in the field for varying lengths of time; (b) interns needed the opportunity to attend county preplanning conferences in the fall; (c) the educational value in having groups of college students observe an intern teach was questionable; and (d) some directing teachers were not qualified to direct the activities of interns (Minutes, 1952). The council voted down remuneration for directing teachers, including fees for courses other than the training courses for directing teachers.

A survey of the period between 1941 and 1945 showed that Florida State University, Florida Southern College, and the University of Tampa had started experimental preservice internships by the spring of 1941. The University of Miami, Stetson University, and Rollins College had interns in the field by the end of 1942. Barry University started a preservice internship program around 1945.

At the University of Florida, preservice internship teaching was scheduled during the second semester of the senior year for eight weeks, and interns earned 15 semester hours of credit in 1950 (University Record, 1950). Special seminars and work-study-work phases were included in the training. Intern teaching as a course title was not noted in the University of Florida catalog until 1954, however. The Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College offered preservice internships in elementary and secondary education during the second semester of the senior year in 1951; six semester credit hours were given (Bulletin, 1951).

By 1953, the trouble spots in the preservice internship program were beginning to lessen. The TEAC began to focus more attention on certification problems and other matters related to teacher education.

In 1957, the state DOE authorized the directing teacher to be allowed one semester credit hour for each intern directed, to a maximum of three interns being directed (Tubbs, 1961/1962). Such credit was to be applied with three semester credit hours in a college course on the recency of credit requirement of six semester credit hours of college work for renewal of certificates (explained further under the 1956 certification regulations).

The preservice internship program at Jacksonville University began in 1958. Interns received six semester credit hours for training that included orientation, nine weeks of internship in the field, and post-internship classes.

The University of South Florida began freshman course work in the fall of 1960. The preservice internship program began in the fall of 1962.

Florida Atlantic University offered preservice internship teaching in 1965 (Bulletin, 1965). The twelve weeks of supervised student teaching experience earned 15 semester hours of credit. No courses, other than special methods seminars, could be taken concurrently with the internship. The seminar discussions centered around data pertaining to classroom problems/management and methods of teaching.

Preservice internships in elementary and secondary education, health and physical education, and vocational and technical education

began at the University of North Florida in 1972 (Catalog, 1972). Interns received ten quarter credit hours for the training. In 1974, 15 quarter credit hours were required in internship experience. Special emphasis was given to the application of theory to practice.

In 1978, a series of teaching preservice internship offerings were available at the University of West Florida (Catalog, 1978). Listed in the junior/senior course work as phase I, II, and III, the yearlong, supervised teaching experience equaled 15 semester hours of credit (5 semester hours each).

Teacher Education in State Institutions

Following the pattern established in describing the period 1929-1941, the University of Florida teacher education program curricula were inspected to aid in understanding the training of teachers and the changes that occurred in that preparation throughout this period.

In 1947, a baccalaureate degree was offered in elementary and secondary education. The first two years of general course work were available through the University College. Prerequisite courses for elementary education included handwriting, public school music and art, general psychology, introduction to education, and sociological foundations of modern life (University Record, 1947). For secondary education, effective speaking, six credits in the area(s) of concentration, and one to three credits in physical education were required.

During the junior year in elementary education, child development; educational psychology; children's social studies, science, and literature; English; and methods and materials in physical education were required. The senior year consisted of problems in instruction, teaching reading, social studies, English, and three credits per semester of student teaching.

The junior year for secondary education students included development and organization of education, secondary curriculum and instruction in major fields, child development, health education, three credits per semester in the first area of concentration, and three credits per semester in the second area of concentration. The senior year curriculum was philosophy of education, three credits per semester of student teaching, six credits per semester in the first area of concentration, and three hours per semester in the second area of concentration.

In 1948, the first reference was made to an Education Library which was located on the third floor of the P. K. Yonge (Education) Building (University Record, 1948). Its services supplemented those of the main University Library. Joseph B. White became the fifth dean. A specialist in the field of education for exceptional children was employed by the college.

The 1948 catalog cited the following assumptions in the development of teacher training curricula:

1. A program in teacher education should consist of both general and professional education; these two phases should be well integrated.

2. Courses in education are professional and vocational in nature, and provisions for laboratory periods should be made for them.
3. A sequence exists in the experiences had in laboratory periods, and provisions must be made for it.
4. Contact with children should come early in the professional education of teachers, and planned courses should provide for such experiences. (University Record, 1948, p. 132)

While enrolled in the University College, the courses included six credits of aspects of human growth and development, six credits of children and culture, three credits of educational psychology (secondary), and six credits of electives in English (elementary). Eight weeks of practicum under supervision were required in the senior year for elementary education. Fifteen credits per semester of theory and practice in teaching were required in the senior year for secondary education.

In 1950, the Curriculum Laboratory was added to the Education Library, and education of the exceptional child was added to the curriculum (University Record, 1950). Designated electives in the junior year included speech correction and hearing, slow learning and personality problems, and physical disabilities.

The first course listings by departments, general education, administration, elementary, foundations, and secondary, were identified in 1954 (University Record, 1954). In 1958, the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School was relocated in separate facilities, and the Yonge Building (College of Education) was renamed the J. W. Norman Hall (University Record, 1959).

In 1961, programs in teacher education represented the cooperative planning and effort of the College of Education and the colleges that offered courses in a teaching field in which a student might wish to become certified (University Record, 1961). The professional sequence requirements and the teaching field requirements were identical for each program whether the degree was sought in the College of Education or a cooperating college (College of Agriculture, College of Architecture and Fine Arts, College of Arts and Sciences, and College of Physical Education and Health).

General preparation included courses in communication, human adjustment, science and mathematics, social studies, and the humanities. Professional education courses were human growth and development, history of education in the U. S., social foundation of education, philosophy of education, elementary/secondary school today, children and learning (elementary), practicum, and internship. Teaching field requirements varied per program. Each program required greater depth in the content field and the professional courses than the minimum requirements for Florida teacher certification (University Record, 1963).

J. B. White served as dean until 1964 when he was replaced by Kimball Wiles. Bert L. Sharp succeeded Wiles in the position in 1968.

Little course variance was noted through 1968. Emphasis was placed on the preservice internship.

The teacher training curricula offered at the University of Florida were representative of the courses available at other established state

institutions. Five additional state institutions were established late in this period.

Florida Atlantic University was established at Boca Raton in 1961. Only upper division and graduate classes were offered (American Council on Education, 1983; Handbook on Florida, 1978). The first postsecondary instruction was given in 1964. Teacher education courses were available. The first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1965.

Established and incorporated as an upper division institution in 1963, the University of West Florida was located at Pensacola (American Council on Education, 1983; "Narrative Descriptions," 1981). The first postsecondary instruction was offered in 1967. Programs to prepare elementary, special, and physical education teachers were available. The first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1968. In 1969, graduate curricula were created.

The University of Central Florida was chartered and established as the Florida Technological University, at Orlando, in 1963 (American Council on Education, 1983). In 1968, the first postsecondary instruction was given, and in 1969, the first baccalaureate degree was awarded. Teacher training was a part of the curricula. The present name was adopted in 1978.

The University of North Florida was founded in Jacksonville in 1965 (American Council on Education, 1983). The present name was adopted in 1968. The first postsecondary instruction was available, and the first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1972. Teachers were trained at the institution from its inception. This university was one of the state leaders in establishing a competency based teacher education program.

Chartered and established at Miami in 1965, Florida International University only offered upper division classes (American Council on Education, 1983). The present name was adopted in 1969. In 1972, the first postsecondary instruction was given. The School of Education also offered teacher training courses following a competency based approach ("Narrative Descriptions," 1981). The first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1973. In 1981, lower division programs were created.

Teacher Education in Private Institutions

Following the pattern set in reporting on the period 1929-1941, Stetson University teacher education curriculum was inspected to aid in understanding the training of teachers and the changes that occurred in that preparation throughout this period. From the beginning, Stetson University emphasized the importance of professional training for teachers. This belief was reinforced through organization of Saturday classes, expansion of summer work, and continual upgrading of the teacher training curricula.

In 1947, the Department of Teacher Education was under the Division of Social Sciences in the College of Liberal Arts at Stetson (Bulletin, 1947). A broad cultural background in liberal arts and sciences and health was provided as basic preparation for elementary and secondary teachers. General course requirements included six semester credit hours in science, social studies, and English; one semester credit hour in health education or health and in physical education. Courses in mathematics, fine arts, and language arts were considered highly

desirable. Professional preparation requirements included 18 semester credit hours of education courses, in addition to general psychology; six semester credit hours of an eight week internship; and six semester credit hours of observation and practice teaching.

Elementary education course work included educational psychology; history and principles of education or introductory education; elementary school curriculum or general methods of teaching in the elementary school; principles and methods of teaching reading; methods and materials in science, social studies, health education, arithmetic, and physical education in the elementary school; children's literature; geography; four semester credit hours in public school music and art; and a credit or non-credit course in penmanship (Bulletin, 1947).

Secondary education emphases were on directing learning, administrative problems and practices, philosophy of education, and comparative education. Requirements varied for each subject and each subject field in which the student was preparing to teach.

In 1950, education was a division of the College of Liberal Arts. Preparation was offered in teacher education, psychology, and health and physical education (Bulletin, 1950). General requirements in teacher education were in communications, human adjustment, biological and physical sciences, mathematics, social studies, and humanities and applied arts. Professional preparation included six semester credit hours in foundations of education (school and society, introduction to education, educational psychology, growth and development); six semester credit hours in teaching in the elementary/secondary school (principles

of teaching, curriculum, methods, evaluation, organization, administration); and three semester credit hours of special methods (teaching materials, content, techniques) (Bulletin, 1950). Fifteen quarter credit hours were required for the preservice internship.

From 1951-1954, the preservice internship program was eight weeks in duration. Interns received ten semester hours of credit.

Additional course offerings in 1968 by the Teacher Education Department were audio-visual methods, materials, projection techniques; curriculum resources; education of the preschool child; American education in transition; and statistical analyses and research designs (Bulletin, 1968). Nine semester credit hours were required in student teaching. It was a ten week teaching experience.

In addition to the existing private institutions offering teacher training, eight additional ones were established during this period. They were scattered across the state.

In 1949, Miami Christian College, in Miami, was established as a private, interdenominational college (American Council on Education, 1983). A B. S. degree in Education was awarded in elementary and physical education.

Established in 1958, at Saint Petersburg, as Florida Presbyterian College, Eckerd College offered its first postsecondary instruction in 1960 (Adams, 1962/1963; American Council on Education, 1983). The first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1964. Training in early childhood, elementary, and secondary education was offered. In 1972, the present name, Eckerd College, was adopted.

Biscayne College, in Miami, was opened by the Roman Catholic Church in 1962 (American Council on Education, 1983; "Narrative Descriptions," 1981). This private college offered a teacher certification program in early childhood, elementary, and secondary education. The first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1966.

Flagler College was chartered in 1963, and opened in Saint Augustine in 1968 ("Narrative Descriptions," 1981). A bachelor's degree was offered in elementary, secondary, special, and physical education.

Nova University, in Fort Lauderdale, was established in 1964 ("Narrative Descriptions," 1981). This university was situated in close proximity to the Nova complex of an elementary, a middle, and a high school. Distinctive educational programs, work-experience programs, cooperative education, and internships were offered. Flexible meeting places and schedules, including off campus centers throughout Florida and in 20 other states, and weekend and evening classes were made available (American Council on Education, 1983). In 1970, the first postsecondary instruction was offered. Undergraduate programs were available, and the present name was adopted in 1976. A bachelor's degree, an educational specialist's degree, and a master's degree were offered in education.

Palm Beach Atlantic College was opened as a private, liberal arts college at West Palm Beach by the Baptist Church in 1968 (American Council on Education, 1983). A bachelor's degree in elementary education was available. The first baccalaureate degree was awarded in 1972.

The Church of God founded Warner Southern College at Lake Wales as a private, liberal arts college in 1968 ("Narrative Descriptions," 1981). A bachelor's degree was available in elementary, secondary, and music education.

The University of Sarasota, at Sarasota, was established in 1969 ("Narrative Descriptions," 1981). Only graduate level courses were offered. Doctoral programs were available in educational administration, curriculum planning, and educational psychology.

Teacher Certification

In 1949, a new type of temporary certificate was issued (Selman, 1956; Tubbs, 1961/1962). This certificate was granted to applicants who were unable to meet the requirements for a regular certificate. The certificate was issued on the basis of from 30 semester credit hours of college work up through a four-year degree or higher. The superintendent of the county in which the applicant was to teach had to endorse the application if the applicant had only 30 to 60 semester credit hours. An applicant with more than 60 semester credit hours could file for a temporary certificate without the endorsement of a superintendent. The certificate was valid for one year. In 1951, 90 semester credit hours were required for filing without endorsement.

Limitations were removed, in 1963, on the number of temporary certificates that could be issued to an applicant. For the holder of a four-year degree from an accredited institution, the limitation of a minimum age of 20 for teaching in Florida was lifted.

In 1961, regulations were adopted for issuing a temporary certificate to a Cuban citizen refugee who presented evidence of holding a bachelor's or higher degree, and who signed an oath that he or she was a refugee from the prevailing Cuban government. A security risk investigation had to be made.

Regulations were provided, in 1968, that permitted a regular certificate to be issued to a citizen of a foreign nation controlled by forces which were not antagonistic to democratic forms of government, refugees legally admitted to the United States, and resident aliens from Cuba (Poag, 1973). All requirements, except citizenship, had to be met for issuance of a regular certificate. The superintendent of the county in which the applicant was to be employed had to file a statement to certify that the applicant would be recommended for continuing contract if issued a regular certificate.

The provisional undergraduate certificate was discontinued after October 1, 1952 (Putney, 1968/1969; Sanders, 1961; Selman, 1955; Tubbs, 1961/1962). Provision was made for the issuance of the provisional post graduate certificate to individuals who had received a master's degree from an accredited institution and had met all requirements for the provisional graduate certificate. This certificate was valid for three years and could be extended. In 1953, the issuance of a post graduate certificate was based on an earned master's degree, and the issuance of an advanced post graduate certificate was based on an earned doctor's degree. The degrees must have been granted from a four-year degree granting institution.

The state BOE adopted a regulation which clarified the degrees required for issuance of the post graduate and advanced post graduate certificates on October 19, 1954 (Selman, 1956; Tubbs, 1961/1962). Both the master's and the doctor's degree must be in Education or in Arts and Science related to Education.

In addition to meeting the previously established requirements (in 1939 and 1947) for the provisional graduate certificate, a 1956 revision in the regulations permitted the issuance of the certificate to an applicant who had three semester credit hours in supervised teaching or three years of successful teaching experience in an accredited school.

A provisional post graduate certificate was created in 1963. Twelve semester credit hours, in the specialization area to be shown on the certificate, must have been earned beyond the requirements for the provisional graduate certificate. Requirements for the provisional graduate and provisional post graduate certificates were revised in 1964 to require recency in credit and practical experience in teaching in addition to graduation from an accredited institution (Poag, 1973). An applicant could lack no more than six semester credit hours of meeting the specialization requirements in the subject or field to be shown on the certificate.

In 1956, the substitute teaching certificate, valid for the school year in which it was issued, was granted to an applicant who had 30 or more semester credit hours (Poag, 1973). The certificate must have been requested by the superintendent of the county in which the applicant was to serve. Substitute teaching was limited to 120 days per school

year. In 1963, the validity of the certificate was extended to ten years. In 1969, the 120 day limitation on the substitute certificate was eliminated by the state BOE.

The following six ranks of teaching certificates in Florida were adopted by the state BOE on April 12, 1960:

Rank I	Advanced Post Graduate	Doctor's degree
Rank II	Post Graduate	Master's degree
	Provisional Post Graduate	
Rank III	Life Graduate State (if based on four years of college training)	
	Graduate	Bachelor's degree
	Provisional Graduate	
	Professional (based on a Graduate Certificate)	
	Temporary (if based on graduation from a four-year college)	
	Life (if the Life Certificate was assigned the rank of III prior to April 15, 1951)	
Rank IV	Certificates based on ninety or more semester hours of college training and less than a four-year degree	
Rank V	Certificates based on sixty to eighty-nine semester hours of college training	
Rank IV	Certificates based on less than sixty hours of college training. (State Board of Education, 1960, p. 47)	

The 1968 special session of the legislature created Rank 1A, between 1 and 2. This type of certificate, a special post graduate certificate, was based upon a sixth year degree in education or 30 semester hours of graduate credit in a planned doctoral degree program to include admission to candidacy for the doctoral degree from a four-year degree granting institution of higher learning (Poag, 1973).

State BOE regulations, in 1960, provided for junior high school certification to be separate from certification for grades 7-12 (Poag, 1973). Requirements were established. The professional certificate was

discontinued in 1962. In 1967, holders of certificates based on non-academic preparation were prohibited from teaching academic courses.

In 1953, the only remaining DOE certification examination was abolished by law and professional training remained as the only basis for teacher certification (Florida Statutes, 1953). In 1957, validation of a degree could be accomplished by scoring 500 or higher on the National Teachers Examination (Poag, 1973; Sanders, 1961; White, A. O., 1979). The examination was administered by a Florida institution having a recognized graduate division. The score was raised to 600 in 1958. The 1961 legislature made it mandatory that a score of at least 500 be made on the common examination of the National Teachers Examination for an applicant to be issued any certificate other than a provisional or temporary certificate (Florida Statutes, 1961).

In 1962, a regulation was adopted which declared a score of 800 on the verbal and quantitative abilities of the Graduate Record Examination and 286 on the verbal and quantitative abilities of the DOE Scholastic Aptitude Test as equivalent to the score of 500 on the National Teachers Examination for issuing regular certification (Poag, 1973). The state DOE Scholastic Aptitude Test was applicable only to those persons who had 60 hours or less of college credit.

The 1963 legislature created the interim certificate for applicants who had not made the minimum score on the National Teachers Examination, Graduate Record Examination, or DOE Scholastic Aptitude Test (Florida Statutes, 1963). The certificate was valid for one year. To validate a degree, the acceptable Graduate Record Examination score was raised to 960 in 1964.

Effective July 1, 1967, the 1967 legislature eliminated the use of any examination score for issuance of certificates and for continuing contracts (Florida Statutes, 1967). The state superintendent of public instruction was authorized to deny certification to anyone for whom he or she possessed satisfactory evidence that the applicant had committed an act for which the state BOE could revoke a teacher's certificate.

In 1950, at a TEAC meeting in Gainesville, Superintendent of Public Instruction Bailey asked that the Florida State University Public Administration Department survey the inadequate service given in certification and recommend organizational changes ("Superintendent Bailey," 1951). (In 1937, the name of the State Department of Public Instruction had been changed to the State Department of Education.) Teacher certification was included in the Division of Instruction of the state DOE; however, following the two-year survey, a reorganization of the state DOE was accomplished, and a separate department, the Department of Teacher Education and Certification, was initiated (Putney, 1968/1969; Sanders, 1961). The separate department was established because of the importance of proper certification services to individual teachers. The TEAC, at the same meeting, voted to encourage and support organized attempts of regional bodies to establish reciprocity between states in certification.

On April 3, 1951, the state BOE adopted a new regulation regarding the extension of regular certificates (Selman, 1956; Tubbs, 1961/1962). Under the new regulation, certificates could be extended for a period of time equal to their original periods of validity on the

basis of six additional semester credit hours earned at a four-year degree granting institution; three of the six semester credit hours could be earned by correspondence. Additional extensions could be granted on the basis of six semester credit hours earned during the preceding period of validity.

In 1956, all certificates, except the temporary, provisional graduate, and provisional post graduate, could be extended for a period of time equal to the original period of validity if the applicant took six semester credit hours in residence or extension classes from a four-year degree granting institution or an approved Florida junior college (Poag, 1973; Tubbs, 1961/1962). Correspondence credits were eliminated. Course work had to be completed, and the certification application filed prior to the expiration date of the current certificate. Continuous teaching experience at the grade level or in the subject area in which certification was sought could be substituted for the recent credit if the experience had been during the five year period immediately preceding the application.

In 1957, provision was made for the use of successful teaching experience in place of the use of credits earned for certification (Poag, 1973). The applicant must hold a bachelor's or higher degree from an approved institution, and the experience must have been acquired within the 15 year period immediately preceding application for a Florida teaching certificate (based on graduation from a four-year institution). One year of experience was equal to three semester credit hours; three years of experience, six semester credit hours; five or

more years of experience, nine semester credit hours. The provision did not apply to extending a certificate, increasing the rank of a certificate, reissuing a temporary certificate, recency of credit, or adding subjects at the secondary level to a certificate unless the experience had been in the subject area to be added.

In 1964, the schedule for applying teaching experience in place of credit earned for issuance of a teacher's certificate was revised: each year of full-time teaching completed, except for the first year of teaching, could be accepted in place of three college semester credit hours (Poag, 1973). The maximum of nine semester credit hours total in general preparation and six semester credit hours total in professional preparation and meeting any of the specialization area(s) requirements remained unchanged.

Based on standards approved by the state BOE in 1953, provisions were made for approving programs of teacher education and institutions which prepared teachers:

1. the programs were to be submitted to the State Department of Education in writing
2. such programs were to meet the minimum prescriptions for teacher certification as set up in the regulations
3. after such a program was approved, the State Department of Education was permitted to issue a certificate to the applicant and a transcript which included a statement by a responsible school official of the satisfaction of the certification requirements as prescribed in the regulations in effect at that period of time.
(Selman, 1956, pp. 23-24)

The 1959 legislature specified that an applicant for certification must be recommended by the institution from which he or she graduated (Poag, 1973; Tubbs, 1961/1962).

Graduates of college or school of education of institutions in any state that at the time of the applicant's graduation were accredited by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education were accepted as eligible for a Florida certificate (Poag, 1973; Sanders, 1961). The certificates covered only their major area(s) as indicated on their college transcripts. This 1956 provision applied only to undergraduate degrees.

Professional preparation regulations for certification in elementary education were clarified in 1956 (Poag, 1973). The prospective teacher must have taken a comprehensive course which included methods of teaching reading or a separate course in reading methods. Also, a course in special methods of teaching English was required for secondary school certification in English.

In 1953, the general preparation requirements were revised so that a graduate of a four-year degree granting institution was considered to have met the general preparation requirement. Provision was made for giving certification in a single college major.

In 1966, specialization requirements were amended by the state BOE to clarify that only one degree major was acceptable in granting certification on the basis of a degree major (Poag, 1973). The state superintendent of public instruction was authorized to use his or her own discretion in declining to accept a major not comparable in quality and content to state BOE regulations requiring specific courses for certification in that field.

The 1955 legislature set the age of 70 years as the compulsory retirement age (Florida Statutes, 1955). The 1965 legislature provided that the mandatory retirement age of 70 years should not apply to persons applying for part-time or substitute teaching certificates (Florida Statutes, 1965).

The 1957 legislature changed the fee from \$3.00 to \$5.00 for a regular teacher's certificate. Fees for a full-time teaching certificate were increased from \$5.00 to \$10.00 in 1967. There was no charge for a part-time or substitute teaching certificate.

Florida Teacher Education in the Modern Era, 1968-1984

Early in 1968, the FEA called the nation's first statewide teachers' strike. One Florida cabinet officer depicted the strike as Florida's "biggest crisis . . . since the Civil War" (White, A. O., 1975, pp. 63-64). Amid the school closings, mass meetings, and traffic jams caused by the 30,000 striking teachers, Floyd Christian, state superintendent of public instruction, emerged as a leading force in keeping the schools open. Initially the FEA rebuffed him, and preferred to negotiate with Governor Kirk and the legislature. FEA negotiators accomplished little with either. Governor Kirk stated that no one could coerce him into action (White, A. O., 1979). Still in session when the FEA called for the strike, lawmakers reacted angrily and refused to negotiate with the FEA because of the "blackmail tactics".

For personal and professional reasons, some teachers quickly tired of the strike. Thousands of teachers began to drift back to work. The

teachers were affected by a very hostile public reaction which was portrayed by the media as a condemnation of greedy teachers who were demanding more money and trying to reduce the power of elected officials.

On March 7, 1968, Governor Kirk signed an appropriation bill, and teachers in unprecedented numbers returned to their classrooms. On March 8, 1968, State Superintendent Christian convened the state BOE. The state BOE adopted a measure that provided for the release of \$10.2 million in budget holdback funds but refused professional negotiations with the teachers' representatives and compliance with the Civil Rights Act (White, A. O., 1979).

The strike was officially ended. Florida teachers emerged from the strike with tremendous job loss. The professional organization for teachers, FEA, was badly weakened by loss in membership and in public image.

The state legislature tried to fill the void, resulting from the teachers' strike, in state school leadership. Under the Reorganization Act of 1969, the legislature was organized for annual sessions and standing committees met almost continually on the major issues of government responsibility including education (White, A. O., 1979). Appointed officials were made subordinate to the elected ones. Executive authority for carrying out legislated policies issued from the state BOE, which in turn expected the commissioner of education (until this time the state superintendent of public instruction) to present for approval administrative procedures for implementation of school programs

and to present data on the conditions of the state school system. The commissioner of education presided over public education from kindergarten through the state universities (Florida Statutes, 1969).

The 1970 legislature and Governor Reubin Askew started the state toward accountability in education. This program directed the commissioner of education to develop and administer a uniform, statewide system of assessment based in part on criterion-referenced tests and in part on norm-referenced tests to determine periodically pupil status, pupil progress, and the degree of achievement of established state educational objectives for each grade level and subject area (Florida Statutes, 1971). The Educational Accountability Act of 1971 provided for an annual public report concerning the costs associated with public education programs and an analysis of the differential effectiveness of instructional programs. The commissioner of education, with the approval of the state BOE, was to develop accreditation standards based upon the attainment of the established educational objectives for the public educational system of Florida.

The 1972 legislature achieved important precedents for financial equalization in distribution of funds for public education. It was probable that national trends accelerated the pace of educational funding equalization in Florida. A California high court had declared the property tax of California invalid for fostering unconstitutionally wide discrepancies between the quality of education offered in property rich and property poor districts. Following the recommendation of the Governor's Citizen Committee on Education, the lawmakers initiated the

Florida Education Finance Program in 1973. The Florida Education Finance Program replaced the Minimum Foundation Program and combined funding equalization with the highest possible levels of local initiative and comprehensive planning. The allocation of state funds accounted for the number of full time students in each district, type of instructional programs, cost-of-living factors, and millage yields.

In April 1974, Governor Askew appointed Ralph Turlington to complete the term of Christian as commissioner of education. During the 1968 teachers' strike, Turlington had worked hard in and out of the legislature to keep the schools open. In 1976, Commissioner Turlington found education to be receiving only 38 percent of the state, county, and city tax dollar. He, therefore, called for an immediate \$20 to \$50 million increase in the fixed quality tax on cigarettes and liquor. Results of legislative bargaining sessions did not concur. Requiring no new taxes, the 1976 appropriation bill yielded \$1.07 billion for K-12, \$13.3 million below the original house recommendation and \$25.7 million above the senate recommendation (White, A. O., 1979). Beyond holding the tax line, the legislature accomplished very little for education.

In 1977, the eleventh grade functional assessment test, which was designed as a prerequisite to earning a high school diploma, was administered for the first time in Florida (Turlington, 1979). This test was designed as a tool to combat illiteracy in Florida. Students were tested in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and in the ability to functionally apply those basic skills in everyday living situations.

In 1979, legislative action provided that students entering a university teacher training program were required to have achieved a predetermined cut-off score on a college entrance examination (Turlington, 1979). Additionally, effective July 1, 1980, new teachers were required to pass a precertification competency test. By July 1, 1981, passing that examination, coupled with a yearlong internship, was required for full certification to teach in Florida public schools. That legislation also required that at least 80 percent of the graduates of a given college of education must pass the teacher competency test in order for the college program to receive the required approval from the state DOE (Turlington, 1979). In 1981, the yearlong internship provision was changed to the requirement of successfully completing a yearlong beginning teacher program, effective July 1, 1982 (Florida Statutes, 1981).

As part of the Omnibus Education Act, enacted in May 1984, the legislature passed two pay incentive programs for Florida teachers (Update, 1984). Under the merit pay plan, teachers who scored high on a job-related test and who were evaluated well might qualify for a \$3,000 bonus. The goal of the bonus was to recognize extraordinary ability and to offer incentive to teachers.

The second pay incentive plan was the state-administered four-step career ladder--the Master Teacher Program. The career ladder in Florida got off to a precarious start in 1983 because the original specifications of the law predicated career ladder advancement on teachers passing subject area exams, holding advanced degrees, and

scoring high on evaluations by three observers trained in the Florida Performance Measurement System (Update, 1984). It was discovered that many subject areas had no valid tests, that a large proportion of the 1982 Teachers-of-the-Year were ineligible for the career ladder because they did not hold master's degrees, and that there were not enough certified evaluators. By 1984, the state had tests for 85 percent of the subject areas and had allocated funds for the Institute for Instructional Research to develop the rest. An amended version of the 1984 law allows substitution of a high subject area test score for the advanced degree requirement and reduces the number of evaluators from three to two. According to B. Othanel Smith, the Florida Performance Measurement System is the best available evaluation instrument (Update, 1984). It has been normed, and it is solidly research-based and highly reliable.

Multi-State Teacher Education Project

Seven states, Florida, Maryland, Michigan, South Carolina, Utah, Washington, and West Virginia, participated in the Multi-State Teacher Education Project (M-STEP). The creation of M-STEP in 1966 resulted because of these conditions: (a) a near universal desire on the part of professionals to intensify the search for improved programs in teacher education, (b) a generally recognized desire of state departments of education to strengthen their roles in teacher preparation, (c) cumulative development and progress in many disciplines which undergird professional teacher education, (d) recent developments

in the field of visual and auditory communications, and (e) the advent of Federal interest in and financial support of plans designed to strengthen American education (Bosley, 1969).

The aim and scope of the cooperative endeavor was to strengthen the capacity of state departments of education in the development of joint responsibility between local education agencies and teacher education institutions with emphasis on laboratory experiences in elementary and secondary schools (Bosley, 1969). Cooperative interstate action and interstate diffusion of innovations and non-regional basis formed the criteria for inviting these seven states from widely divergent geographic regions into this three-year federally funded M-STEP program.

The major focus of M-STEP in Florida was toward the development of comprehensive plans for improving teacher education and teaching in Florida. The information system developed by Florida M-STEP directed the state DOE to encourage the following developments in teacher education programs:

1. the systematic evaluation of teaching performance,
 2. a decision-making/decision implementing concept of teaching,
 3. the development of teaching technology,
 4. the development of stronger school-college partnerships in teacher education,
 5. the development of individualized teacher education materials directed toward specific objectives,
 6. systematic planning to meet educational manpower needs, and
 7. initiative on the part of both school districts and colleges in developing teacher education programs directed toward specific objectives.
- (Daniel, K. F., 1969, pp. 35-36)

The state DOE was attempting to develop a system which would make teacher education responsive to the actual needs of the schools.

Teacher Education Centers

In 1973, the legislature passed the Teacher Education Center Act (Florida Statutes, 1973). The purposes of this act were to declare a state policy for the education of teachers; to emphasize that the education of teachers is inherently a career long process; and to augment present college/university preservice teacher education programs and present school district inservice teacher education programs. Effective July 1, 1973, the responsibility for operating programs for preservice and inservice teacher education was assigned jointly to the colleges/universities, to the district school boards, and to the teaching profession. The colleges/universities were to have the primary responsibility for operating preservice programs.

In order to facilitate collaboration between colleges/universities and school districts, to ensure appropriate involvement and participation of teachers, and to establish procedures for joint utilization of resources available for preservice and inservice teachers, the state BOE issued regulations that provided for the establishment of teacher education centers in school districts. The 1973 statute defined a center as the preservice and inservice teacher training activities carried out in a school district in a teacher education center as approved by regulations of the state BOE. Teacher education was defined as all the experiences and activities carried out

to assist individuals in attaining and maintaining the skills, knowledge, and attitudes which enable them to perform in the professional role of teacher.

Florida Council on Teacher Education

In 1973, the name of the TEAC was changed to the Florida Council on Teacher Education (Florida Statutes, 1973). The council was to consist of 23 members appointed by the state BOE. Five members were to represent institutions of higher learning in the state which offered teacher preparation programs. Three members were to represent public institutions of higher learning with colleges of education. One member was to represent the colleges of education of private institutions of higher learning. One member was to represent the colleges of arts and sciences of public institutions of higher learning. One member was to represent the public community colleges of the state. One member was to be a high school principal and one, an elementary school principal. Seven members were to be teachers. Two members were to be directors of inservice staff development in school districts. Two members were to be county superintendents. Two members were to be lay members of the district school boards. Two members were to be lay persons who were the parents of school children.

The duties of the council included making recommendations for standards relating to programs and policies for the development, certification, improvement, and maintenance of competencies of educational personnel; aiding in planning and conducting an annual

review of manpower; making recommendations for objective, independently verifiable standards of measurement and evaluation of teaching competence; and making recommendations for alternative ways to demonstrate qualifications for certification that insure fairness and flexibility while protecting against incompetence. All reports were to be made to the commissioner of education.

Competency Orientation

In the early 1970s, three states, Florida, New York, and Washington, took a leadership role in the movement toward competency based teacher education/certification. Dissatisfaction with the amount and rate of pupil learning had increased. Concern was being expressed by parents, school boards, legislatures, and professional educators. Thus, professional educators began to search for ways to increase pupil learning by improving the individual teacher's effectiveness. Teacher education was challenged to effectively relate the preparation of educators to the job that they were expected to fulfill in the schools of today.

Florida began to directly attack the problem of developing teacher competencies; New York and Washington did not. K. F. Daniel, Associate for Planning and Coordination in the Florida State DOE wrote:

It has long been obvious to laymen and to professionals that a demonstrated ability to teach is the best evidence of teaching ability. Since teacher certification is supposed to identify those eligible for employment as teachers, the teacher certification process should rely heavily on evidence of the ability of candidates to perform. . . . The State of Florida

has decided that performance-based teacher certification cannot be implemented satisfactorily until the needed teacher training technology is available. (Daniel, K. F., 1971, pp. 5-6, 8)

The objectives of the Florida state DOE in regards to implementing competency based certification policies was included in a recommendation made by the Board of Governors for the Florida Educational Research and Development Program to the Florida commissioner of education:

By the end of 1974, competencies expected of teaching personnel in elementary and secondary schools will be clearly identified. Evidence will be available showing relationships between teacher competencies and pupil learning. Teacher training techniques will be available for use in preservice and inservice teacher education programs which are aimed at the specified competencies. Evidence will be available to state policy makers which shows the extent to which teacher effects on pupil learning support various credentialing requirements. (Prospectus: Florida Performance, 1971, p. 15)

In competency based teacher education approach, requirements were defined in terms of specific competencies that were to be mastered by the prospective teacher in a particular program. The evidence of successful completion involved performance of tests which demonstrated proficiency in the prespecified teaching competencies. The competencies adopted by the state BOE became the competencies of the performance based teacher education approach. For accreditation of the teacher education program by the state DOE, the training institution had to adhere to the state BOE competency requirements. Thus, the 1977 legislature passed a regulation stating that beginning July 1, 1980, each applicant for initial teacher certification would have to

demonstrate on a comprehensive written examination the mastery of the minimum essential generic and specialization competencies adopted by the state BOE (Florida Statutes, 1977).

Teacher Education in State Institutions

Following the pattern established in describing the period 1929-1941, the University of Florida teacher education program curricula were inspected to aid in understanding the training of teachers and the changes that occurred in that preparation throughout this period.

Early in 1969, the childhood education program (CEP) was added to the curriculum (Blume, 1978). From 1958 to 1970, Arthur Combs and his associates had conducted research on effective practitioners in the helping professions. As a result of that research and his advocacy of the humanistic approach to teacher education, Combs conceptualized CEP. For the first four years it was an experimental program which operated along side the regular program. In 1973, CEP was expanded. In 1974, CEP became the only undergraduate program of elementary and early childhood education. The early childhood program was a part of the CEP model, but in 1976, when the general teacher education department evolved, the early childhood education program became separate from CEP.

In 1973, the middle school education program was added to the curriculum (University Record, 1973). In 1976, secondary education was changed to subject specialization teacher education (University Record, 1976), and psychology education was added as a specialization (major) area. Health education/driver education and safety was added as a specialization area in 1979.

In 1978, David C. Smith became the eighth dean of the College of Education. His educational leadership in Florida was enhanced with his election as chairman of the newly created Education Standards Commission in 1981 (Florida Statutes, 1981). The duties of this commission included making recommendations to the state BOE of programs and policies for the development, certification, improvement, and maintenance of the competencies of educational personnel and of standards for approval of preservice teacher education programs. Recent recommendations of this commission concerned establishing guidelines that would reduce the current 240 teacher certification areas to 42 broad field areas and that would ban the current practice of extending certificates for five years without additional training requirements.

In the fall semester of 1984, students entering their junior year began a new teacher education program, PROTEACH. PROTEACH was designed to require five years of study and to culminate in the master's degree. Features of the program included increasing directed study of academic specializations related to the teaching field; preparing secondary teachers with an undergraduate degree in a teaching field not in the College of Education; studying the disciplines undergirding education; broadening the general education base; studying an expanded research base on teaching and learning; expanding foundational studies; and increasing the amount of clinical and laboratory experiences. Knowledge and skills from the Florida Beginning Teacher Program were integrated into teacher preparation.

Teacher Education in Private Institutions

Following the pattern set in reporting on the period 1929-1941, Stetson University teacher education curriculum was inspected to aid in understanding the training of teachers and the changes that occurred in that preparation throughout this period. In 1970, the major responsibility of the department of teacher education was for the preparation and certification of teachers for the elementary and secondary schools. The departmental major was elementary education. Students who desired to be certified to teach in junior and senior high schools majored in the department that offered the subject that they planned to teach.

In 1972, the department name for teacher education was changed to education. Courses were offered in two blocks, the language arts block and the mathematics-sciences block (Bulletin, 1972). In 1978, courses relating to exceptional children and school administration were added to the curriculum (Bulletin, 1978). In 1982, the mathematics-sciences block was reduced to three courses and the remaining course offerings were entitled other education courses (Bulletin, 1982).

Yearlong internship was mentioned in the 1980 bulletin. The beginning teacher program was noted in the 1982 bulletin.

Teacher Certification

In 1971, the state BOE adopted a regulation that permitted certification in a subject, not formerly covered by regulations, where the subject was taught to a substantial number of students as determined

by the commissioner of education in Florida public schools (Florida Statutes, 1971). The applicant must hold a four-year or higher degree from a four-year degree granting institution with a major in the subject for which certification was sought. The major subjects included were psychology, drama, humanities, earth science, and the emotionally disturbed.

The state BOE adopted regulations for certification in middle schools in 1971 (Florida Statutes, 1971). This certification was based on a degree major or experience and inservice training. In 1973, the state BOE provided for certification at the elementary school level in science, social studies, mathematics, and English (Florida Statutes, 1973).

Provision was made in 1972 for certification as an educational media specialist (Florida Statutes, 1972). This regulation changed the terminology from library and audio-visual services to educational media. Certification requirements were revised somewhat.

Requirements for issuance of a graduate certificate that was valid for five years were established in 1973 (Florida Statutes, 1973). The applicant for this certificate must be a graduate of a four-year degree granting institution. The holder was authorized to teach the grades, subjects, or subject fields indicated on the certificate.

Provision was made in 1981 for a temporary certificate to be issued to a person who had passed the reading, writing, and mathematics portions of the required written examination but who had not passed the professional section (Florida Statutes, 1981). A maximum of two temporary certificates could be issued under this provision.

Effective July 1, 1979, the ranking of teachers' certificates was eliminated (Florida Statutes, 1978). When the graduate, post graduate, special post graduate, advanced post graduate, standard, post standard, professional, undergraduate, and certain special certificates were extended, they were converted to the regular certificate which was valid for five years.

Beginning July 1, 1980, each applicant for initial teacher certification must demonstrate on a comprehensive written examination the mastery of the minimum essential generic and specialization competencies adopted by the state BOE (Florida Statutes, 1977). This examination tested the ability of the examinee to write in a logical and understandable style with appropriate grammar and sentence structure; to read, comprehend, and interpret orally and in writing, professional and other written materials; and to comprehend and work fundamental mathematical concepts.

The 1969 legislature passed an act authorizing the commissioner of education to enter into written agreements with other states contracting to mutually recognize teaching certificates issued by the other states (Florida Statutes, 1969; Poag, 1973). This agreement permitted teachers in the states with which Florida had contracted to be issued a regular Florida teacher's certificate based upon graduation, since January 1974, from a program approved for certification in the other state(s) or based upon an initial regular certificate issued by the other state(s) and 27 months of successful teaching experience in the state(s) with which Florida entered into agreement. The 27 months had to have been served

within a seven year period immediately preceding application for a Florida certificate, and 18 of the 27 months had to have been served while holding a regular initial certificate in the state issuing the certificate.

In 1969, the state BOE amended the requirement for college recommendation for a teacher's certificate to the extent that an official transcript showing that the degree had been granted and that the applicant was graduated in good standing should be accepted as meeting that requirement. The 1971 legislature removed the requirement that an applicant for a Florida teacher's certificate be recommended for such certification by the institution of higher learning from which he or she was graduated (Florida Statutes, 1971).

In 1972, the state BOE approved a change in the use of teacher experience in lieu of college credit to the extent that teaching any subject in the elementary school could be substituted for general elementary methods (Florida Statutes, 1972). The same regulation applied to teaching any subject at the secondary level.

The requirements for reading methods in elementary certification was amended by the state BOE in 1973 (Florida Statutes, 1973). The following competencies were to be met: (a) identifying reading skills and means of evaluating such skills; (b) recognizing and diagnosing reading programs; and (c) prescribing and using a variety of appropriate methods and materials to increase reading performance (Poag, 1973). These requirements could be met by college credit or by two years of experience as an elementary classroom teacher combined with effective

participation in a district school boards inservice reading skills program. This amendment was effective September 1, 1974.

In 1973, the state BOE amended regulations governing extension of certificates by means of inservice performance (Florida Statutes, 1973). Each teacher who wished to extend a certificate with inservice performance must have been involved in the development of competence in reading skills. The effective date was July 1, 1974. The same provisions for extending certificates were applied to the reinstatement of regular certificates which had expired. Unless the expired certificates were reinstated within a year of the expiration date, certification in effect at the time the reinstatement was requested would have to be met in addition to the reinstatement requirements.

Effective July 1, 1979, all teacher's certificates issued in Florida were extendible for a period of five years (Florida Statutes, 1978). Rules of the state BOE prescribing additional training, experience, and competencies must be met. Beginning July 1, 1980, each teacher's certificate issued in Florida was valid for a period not to exceed five years (Florida Statutes, 1978).

Beginning July 1, 1981, no person could be issued a regular certificate until he or she had completed one school year of satisfactory teaching or a yearlong internship (Florida Statutes, 1978). In 1979, issuance of a regular certificate was based on an increase in the number of school years of satisfactory teaching to three years (Florida Statutes, 1979). In 1981, the regulation was changed to read that beginning July 1, 1982, no person could be issued an initial

regular certificate until he or she had completed three school years of satisfactory teaching out of state or had successfully completed a yearlong beginning teacher program (Florida Statutes, 1981). The yearlong beginning teacher program was to be for all teachers without a regular certificate and with less than three years of out-of-state teaching experience; it was to be conducted during the individual's initial year of employment in a Florida school district subsequent to July 1, 1982. In 1983, out-of-state teaching experience was deleted from the yearlong beginning teacher program provision (Florida Statutes, 1983).

Each applicant for teacher certification must file, and pay processing costs for, a set of fingerprints taken by an authorized law enforcement officer (Florida Statutes, 1983). The name of any person who had been convicted of, or who had pled nolo contendere to, an act constituting grounds for revocation or suspension of the person's teaching certificate or a crime other than a minor traffic violation must be reported to the state DOE by the school superintendent. This provision was effective October 1, 1984.

The 1973 legislature changed the fee from \$10.00 to \$12.00 for a regular teaching certificate. A reissued temporary certificate, a part-time certificate, or a substitute certificate was \$10.00. Five dollars was charged for extension of a regular certificate. Two dollars was charged for a duplicate certificate or for a name change on a certificate.

In summary. Florida teachers emerged from the 1968 strike with tremendous job loss and loss in public image. The Reorganization Act of 1969 was an attempt by the legislature to fill the void in state school leadership. The act enabled the commissioner of education to present data on the conditions of the state school system and to present for approval the procedures for implementation of school programs. The effect has been to strengthen state level control over teacher education and certification and to institute measures for monitoring teacher performance.

In 1971, the Educational Accountability Act provided for the development of accreditation standards that were based upon the education objectives of the Florida school system. The eleventh grade functional literacy test was instituted in 1977, and the teachers' certification competency examination was required in 1980. The yearlong beginning teacher program was initiated in 1982. Effective October 1, 1984, fingerprinting became a requirement for teacher certification.

CHAPTER FOUR
A SUMMARY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN FLORIDA

The purpose of this study was to seek a general understanding of the history of preservice teacher education in Florida. Answers to the following three questions were investigated:

1. What strategies have been used in training teachers in the State of Florida?
2. What has influenced the development of certain strategies?
3. What procedures have been employed by the State of Florida to monitor the effectiveness of teacher education programs?

In this chapter, each question will be discussed across the eight time periods during which teacher training developments in Florida were described in Chapter 3.

Strategies in Training
Teachers in Florida

The school law of 1869 was the foundation upon which the present school system in Florida was constructed. The law authorized and directed the state board of education (BOE) to provide for the preparation of teachers. Among the first steps employed were the establishment of model schools in various parts of the state and the

offering of teacher education courses by the best primary and secondary schools. From 1869-1893, private institutions of higher learning and state and private normal schools and normal colleges came into existence. In 1883, the legislature made appropriations for normal instruction in the state seminaries. In 1898, the West Florida Seminary gave special attention to its normal courses and announced the first college credit courses in education offered in Florida.

Teachers' institutes were conducted by State Superintendent W. P. Haisley in 1879-1880. They were made possible by appropriations from the Peabody Education Fund. The Peabody Fund supported the institutes until 1903. Between 1889 and 1893, there were no state-supported institutes because the legislature failed to make appropriations for them. Early teacher training in the seminaries and institutes emphasized methods of teaching. The courses offered were largely based upon training equivalent to that of the upper elementary school level.

With the enactment of the uniform teacher certification law in 1893, the emphasis in teacher training shifted from teaching teachers how to teach to preparing them to pass the certification examinations. This law, however, rendered a valuable service to the schools of Florida by making it necessary for all teachers to have a somewhat accurate knowledge of the subjects and of the textbooks which they were supposed to teach. Until 1913, provisions of this law determined the content of the teacher training courses and the methods employed in teaching this content.

The graduate certification law of 1913 initiated the transition from the practice of issuing certificates on the basis of examination results only to the practice of issuing them on the basis of training for the work to be performed. This law granted teachers' certificates to graduates of institutions of higher learning in the state if they took a specified amount of professional work. Once the issuance of certificates to graduates of institutions of higher learning was begun, certificate privileges were extended, and eventually graduates of any accredited institution of higher learning within Florida were allowed certification.

After 1913, there was a steady increase in the difficulty of work offered in teacher education curricula. Review courses and other subcollegiate work were eliminated, and courses on the college and graduate levels were introduced. Basic course work included methods of study, school management and supervision, history of education, principles and philosophy of education, child study, and practice teaching. The state and private normal schools which were devoted primarily to preparing students for the examinations for teachers' certificates disappeared.

With teachers receiving certification after graduation from teacher training courses, the institutions of higher learning adjusted their teacher training curricula to meet the demands resulting from the changing concepts and practices in Florida public school education. This afforded the institutions a position of leadership in the development of the Florida public school system.

In 1915, teacher training departments in Florida public high schools were authorized for the specific purpose of training teachers for elementary and rural schools. After 1923, when graduates of these departments were allowed first-grade teachers' certificates, the departments developed rapidly. However, they were discontinued in 1931 as the emphasis in teacher training was shifted to the four-year degree granting institutions.

The Great Depression and World War II had a decided effect upon teacher education. Preservice internship programs were in their infancy. Over the period, more and more teachers obtained their certification by graduation from teacher training institutions rather than through examinations. The process that eventually resulted in replacing certification by examination with certification by professional preparation was long and involved.

In the years between 1947-1968, a program in teacher education consisted of general, professional, and specialization sequences. The phases were well integrated. Courses in education were professional and vocational in nature. Early contact with children and laboratory periods were provided. Putting theory into practice was emphasized. Cooperation between the college of education and the colleges that offered courses in a teaching field were explored and encouraged.

In the early 1970s, Florida took a leadership role in the movement toward competency based teacher education. In the competency based approach, requirements were defined in terms of specific competencies that were to be mastered by the prospective teacher in a particular

program. The evidence of successful completion involved performance of tests which demonstrated proficiency in the prespecified teaching competencies. The competencies adopted by the state BOE became the competencies of the performance based teacher education programs.

State policy for the education of teachers was augmented by the Teacher Education Center Act of 1973. Collaboration between colleges/universities and school districts was facilitated by the state to establish procedures for joint utilization of available resources for preservice and inservice teacher education.

In the 1980s the possibility of a five-year teacher education program was explored. For example, PROTEACH, at the University of Florida, was designed to require five years of study and to culminate in the master's degree. Increasing the study of academic specializations related to the teaching field and expanding the research base on teaching and learning were features of the program. Knowledge and skills from the Florida Beginning Teacher Program were integrated into teacher preparation.

Influences on the Development of Teacher Training Strategies

Before the educational development of Florida as a territory, the country in control of the government affected the character of education. Under Spanish rule, the aim, content, and methods used were dictated by decrees. Under English occupation, education was for religion and virtue.

In 1851, a bill was passed by the legislature that provided for the establishment of two seminaries of learning. The primary purpose of the seminaries was to give instruction in the art of teaching. As the first legal basis for the training of teachers, the school law of 1869 decreed that the first obligation of institutions of higher learning was in preparation of teachers.

Continuing through the 1930s, certification laws directly influenced the development of teacher training in Florida. In 1893, a state uniform system of teacher examination and certification forced teachers to study academic material almost exclusively but ignored methods and professional courses. The graduate certification law of 1913 initiated the transition from the practice of issuing certificates on the basis of examination results only to the practice of issuing them on the basis of training for the work to be performed. In 1917, all teachers' certificates came under the direction of the state superintendent of public instruction; this unification of authority in the state educational system marked progress in uniformity of teacher certification.

The 1939 school code reorganized education at the state level. Not only was the certification process reorganized, but the provision established the state BOE as the state agency that determined regulations for teacher education program accreditation.

Beginning in 1937, the Florida state department of education (DOE) was advised in matters relating to teacher education by several advisory groups. The Teacher Education Advisory Council (TEAC), which became the

Florida Council on Teacher Education in 1973, worked to raise teacher certification standards, to establish a preservice internship program as a part of teacher training, to improve teacher preparation by helping coordinate the activities of the teacher training institutions and the state DOE, and to maintain standards relating to programs and policies for the development, measurement, and evaluation of educational competencies.

The Continuing Educational Council conducted a study dealing with the shortage of public school teachers in Florida. From the survey, the council recommended salary increases rather than certification regulation changes. A 1958 report of the council summarized findings of a two-year study of teacher education programs and teacher certification in Florida. The report helped to foster better lay understanding of the education and certification of teachers.

The Florida Citizens Committee on Education was chiefly known for its efforts in gaining support for the 1947 enactment of the Minimum Foundation Program in Florida. This program was designed to equalize the educational opportunities of the children in Florida. The Minimum Foundation Program delineated the college training necessary for ranks of teachers' certificates and gave incentive to teachers to improve their ranking. College curricula were designed to accommodate the needs of the public schools and the certification standards.

The Interim Legislative Educational Committee studied the following areas: recruitment of teachers, certification and programs of teacher education, National Teachers Examination, the TEAC, accreditation, and

higher education. Legislative action resulted from the recommendations of this committee.

Prior to 1940, credit was not required in observation and practice teaching. Beginning in September 1940, three semester credit hours were required in observation and practice teaching, and in 1941, the semester credit hour requirement was doubled. Steps were also taken in early 1941 for more practical teaching experience in teacher training with the initiation of a statewide preservice internship program. The preservice internship program was operational in Florida from late 1942 and as teacher education programs were developed in the institutions of higher learning in Florida.

In 1966, the Multi-State Teacher Education Project was created. Florida was one of seven states to participate. The aim and scope of the cooperative endeavor was to strengthen the capacity of state departments of education in the development of joint responsibility between local education agencies and teacher education institutions with emphasis on laboratory and practical experiences. Teacher effectiveness research of the mid 1970s encouraged educators to investigate extending the undergraduate teacher education program to a five-year program including a yearlong field experience (beginning teacher program) and culminating in a master's degree and teacher certification.

The nation's first statewide teachers' strike was called in Florida in 1968. The strike was short lived, and Florida teachers emerged from the strike with tremendous job loss. The state legislature tried to fill the void, resulting from the teachers' strike, in state school

leadership. As a result the legislature became far more influential in shaping education and teacher education. Under the Reorganization Act of 1969, the legislature was organized for annual sessions and standing committees met almost continually on the major issues of government responsibility including education. Executive authority for carrying out legislated policies issued from the state BOE, which in turn expected the commissioner of education to present for approval administrative procedures for implementation of the state school system. The commissioner of education presided over public education from kindergarten through the state universities.

The Educational Accountability Act of 1971 directed the commissioner of education to develop and administer a uniform, statewide system of assessment based in part on criterion-referenced tests and in part on norm-referenced tests to determine periodically pupil status, pupil progress, and the degree of achievement of established state educational objectives for each grade level and subject area. The commissioner of education, with the approval of the state BOE, developed accreditation standards based upon the attainment of the established educational objectives for the public educational system of Florida.

In 1977, the eleventh grade functional assessment test, which was designed as a prerequisite to earning a high school diploma, was administered for the first time in Florida. Students were tested in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and in the ability to functionally apply those basic skills in everyday living situations. The functional assessment test requirement, coupled with the 1971 Educational

Accountability Act, influenced teacher education by placing greater emphasis on such areas as classroom management and the teaching of the basics.

In 1979, legislative action provided that students entering a university teacher training program were required to have achieved a predetermined cut-off score on a college entrance examination. Effective July 1, 1980, new teachers were required to pass a precertification competency test. Mastery of the prespecified teaching competencies, specific competencies that were adopted by the state BOE and that were incorporated into the requirements of the teacher training program of an institution, were tested on this performance examination. Eighty percent of the graduates of a given college of education must pass the teacher competency test in order for the college preparation program to receive the required approval from the state DOE. By July 1, 1982, passing the examination, coupled with completion of a yearlong beginning teacher program, was required for full certification to teach in Florida Public Schools.

State Procedures for Monitoring the Effectiveness of Teacher Education Programs

In early Florida, no attempts were made to monitor teacher education programs. Academic knowledge of teachers was monitored through the certification examinations administered by the superintendent of public instruction. Certification provided a means for the state to continue the monitoring process.

The graduate certification law of 1913 initiated the transition from the practice of issuing certificates on the basis of examination results only to the practice of issuing them on the basis of training for the work to be performed. Course requirements in professional training were gradually increased. This was a long and involved process that eventually resulted in replacing certification by examination with certification by professional preparation.

In 1953, provisions were made by the state legislature for the approval of the programs of teacher education and the institutions which prepared teachers based on standards approved by the state BOE. The 1959 legislature specified that an applicant for certification must be recommended by the institutions from which he or she graduated.

The statewide teachers' strike in Florida in 1968 increased monitoring activities by the state. As indicated earlier, the Educational Accountability Act of 1971 provided for the commissioner of education to develop and administer a uniform, statewide system of assessment of the established state educational objectives for each grade level and subject area. This set in motion a way to monitor teacher effectiveness, and indirectly teacher training programs, by considering student achievement.

In 1979, legislative action provided that students entering a university teacher training program were required to have achieved a predetermined cut-off score on a college entrance examination. Effective July 1, 1980, new teachers were required to pass a precertification test that checked the mastery of teaching competencies

specified by the state BOE. A 1981 provision required that at least 80 percent of the graduates of a given college of education must pass the teacher competency test in order for the college program to receive the required approval from the state DOE. By July 1, 1982, passing that examination, coupled with completing a yearlong beginning teacher program, was required for full certification to teach in Florida public schools.

Recommendations

The strength of an educational system depends upon the quality of its teachers. However enlightened the aims, however up to date and generous the equipment, however efficient the administrators, the value of education to the children is determined by the teachers. How to prepare large numbers of young people to be effective teachers of our children, and then, how to keep those teachers performing at a high level are perennial challenges in education. Teacher education underlies all of the proposals to improve the schools. It cannot be ignored.

This writer recommends that this study concerning the historical development of teacher education in Florida be updated every 10 to 15 years. Only as we as educators analyze, synthesize, observe, and study the ways that teachers are prepared can we endeavor to improve teacher education, a fundamental part of our educational system.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

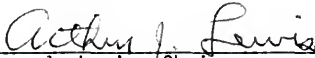
Judith Diane Keck was born on March 15, 1947, in Williams County, Ohio. She was educated in Ohio public schools. Her undergraduate degree was earned magna cum laude in elementary education from Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio, in August 1973. During her bachelor's degree program, she was elected to Kappa Delta Pi (education honorary) and Phi Kappa Phi (honorary).

She continued her college education at Bowling Green State University and received a Master of Education degree in August 1975. During two summers of her master's degree program, she studied and visited British primary schools through a cooperative exchange between Bowling Green State University and the University of London. From 1973-1975, she taught fifth and sixth grades in the North Central School System, Pioneer, Ohio.

In December 1976, she received an educational specialist degree from the University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio. She served as a teaching graduate assistant in elementary social studies methods while at the University of Toledo, and was elected to Pi Lambda Theta (education honorary for women) and Phi Delta Kappa (education honorary).

She earned a Doctor of Philosophy degree in curriculum and instruction at the University of Florida, Gainesville, in August 1985. Her dissertation researched the historical development of preservice teacher education in Florida.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.




Arthur J. Lewis, Chairman
Professor of Instructional Leadership
and Support

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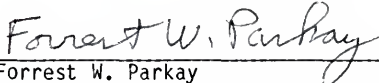
Arthur O. White
Professor of Foundations of Education

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Robert S. Soar
Professor of Foundations of Education

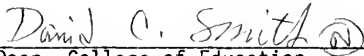
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Forrest W. Parkay
Associate Professor of Instructional
Leadership and Support

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

August 1985



Dean, College of Education

Dean, Graduate School

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